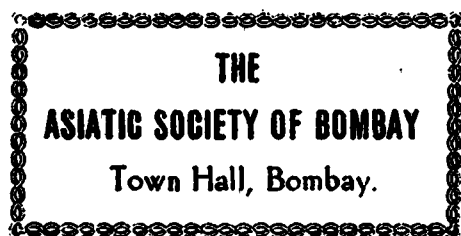




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SYSTEM OF UNIVERSAL GEOGRAPHY.

BOOK CXV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Kingdom of Prussia and the Great Dutchy of Posen. Historical account of the ancient Pruczi and the Teutonic Knights.

THE ancient *Æsty*, *Venedi* and *Guttones* formed before the tenth century, a mixed *Wendo-Gothic* people, that inhabited the countries watered by the *Vistula* on the west, and the *Niemen* on the east. They were denominated *Pruczi*,^a but it is not likely that they were connected either with the *Borusci*, a much more eastern tribe, or with the *Po-Russians*, a *Slavonic* people, whose name signifies the neighbours of the *Russians*; for it is certain that at the early period of which we speak, the inhabitants of these countries held no intercourse with each other. Their name has, with greater probability, been derived from the nature of their soil; *Prusznika*, an ancient *Wend* word, signifies hard and clayey lands, and is not inapplicable to the inner ridge of *Eastern Prussia*.

^a Their name is pronounced *Prutzi*, and it is written by different authors, *Prutzi*, *Pruteni* and *Prutzi*.

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The different tribes.

They were divided into different tribes, many of which are not wholly unknown; the Pruczi proper or *Sembes* were the natives of *Samband* or the ancient *Wittland*; the *Natang*i inhabited the woodlands on the south of the *Pregel*; the *Nactravi* and *Szalavoni* were scattered along the banks of the *Niemen*. The *Sudavi* were perhaps the same people as the *Sudeni* of Ptolemy, who emigrated during the thirteenth century into Lithuania and the south-east provinces of Eastern Prussia. The *Galindi* or *men with large heads*, are expressly mentioned by Ptolemy; they occupied so late as the fourteenth century, the southern portion of Eastern Prussia. The *Urmi*, *Ermi* or *Wermi*, who are perhaps of Finnic origin, gave their name to the province of *Ermeland*; the country round the *Frisch-Haf* or fresh water lake, was peopled by the *Pogesani*, and the banks of the lower *Vistula* by the *Pomesani*. The Lithuanians and Samogitians are of the same origin as the Pruczi, and both are descended from the ancient *Venedi* or *Wends*, but these last mingled with other Gothic and Finnic tribes, that obtained a temporary dominion over them.

Language of the ancient Pruczi.

The language of the ancient Pruczi fell gradually into disuse during the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and was no longer spoken in the seventeenth. It differs from the Lithuanian, only as one dialect from another, and the ancient *Wend* is the common source from which both are derived. That language, or, as it is now termed the *Proto-Wend*, was probably spoken from time immemorial on the shores of the *Baltic*, for the trade in yellow amber appears to have been as ancient as the earliest dawn of history. About the commencement of the vulgar era, the same trade was carried on to a considerable extent between the *Venedi* on the *Baltic*, and the *Veneti* on the *Adriatic*, a proof of a very ancient intercourse between the inhabitants of the two countries.

Hierarchy.
The *Kriwe*.

The Pruczi were subject to the person that presided over their common worship. The *Kriwe* or supreme

judge was also the high priest, the great sacrificer. *Romowe* was the place of his residence; its site, although doubtful, was not perhaps far distant from the ancient and central province of Natangia, or from the place where at a later age, the monastery of the Holy Trinity was erected.^b The *Kriwe* assumed the title of *Kriwe Kriwoyto*, or Judge of Judges; his office was elective, he was chosen by a council of the priests. Instances are not wanting of some of them having sacrificed themselves in their old age for the salvation of the people. The names of the different *kriwes* are mentioned by Hartknoch,^c and Brudeno or Pruten is supposed to have been the first. It is believed that he lived in the fifth century, but according to another account he is represented as the brother or cotemporary of *Waidewut*, the Scandinavian hero or demigod that founded the religion. It is not, however, unlikely that two different traditions have been confounded, the one relative to an ancient foreign invasion, the other connected with national superstition. * To prove that this was the case is impossible, on account of the darkness in which the history of these states is enveloped.

The *kriwe* had under him a numerous band of priests ^{Different} or magicians initiated in the different mysteries of the wor- ^{priests.} ship. The *Siggenottes* held an important *rank*, but the nature of their office is very imperfectly known; their name signifies perhaps *Sigs-Genoten*, the companions of *Sigs* or Odin, and if it does so, it appears to strengthen the opinion concerning the Scandinavian origin of the Prussian mythology. The *Waidels* and *Waidelottes* or the priests and priestesses possessed great authority over the people, one or more of them resided in every village, and it was from them that the Christian missionaries met with the most obstinate resistance. Their name recalls that of *Waidewut*, and is probably connected with the Sanscrit

^b See Hartknoch's *Alt und Neu Preussen*, 1684, pages 11, 116, 125.

^c Grunau, cited by Hartknoch.

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root *veda* or *vidia*,^d of which the corresponding words in Danish, Saxon and German are *vide*, *weten* and *wissen*; of the same origin are the Greek and Latin words *eiden* and *videre*, to see. The *Wayones* breathed on the sick, and cured them of their diseases, and it has been inferred that their name bears some analogy to *vayou* or wind in Sanscrit.

Asiatic
customs.

Their customs may serve to throw some light on the early part of their history; the Wend women sacrificed themselves at the tombs of their husbands, and a perpetual fire burned in the house of the *kriwe*. It is not perhaps improbable that what has been considered a confused assemblage of the idioms and institutions of different nations, that existed in the middle ages, is a relic not only of the most ancient language, but the most ancient worship in Europe.

Gods, different
classes
of divinities.

If little information can at present be obtained on the subject, it is owing to the barbarous care, which the Christians took in destroying the monuments or rather the traditions concerning the religion of the Wends. Nothing certain is known even of the principal divinities of that people, for although some authors mention a sort of trinity, which was composed of *Perkymos*, the god of light and thunder, *Pikollos*, the god of hell,^e and *Protrimpos*, the god of the earth, there is reason to believe that the worship of the people consisted chiefly in the adoration of the sun, moon and stars, and also of different animals, which were held sacred in different districts.^f Some animals, such as lizards, frogs and serpents were considered sacred in Lithuania during the seventeenth century.^g

These apparent contradictions may be reconciled by the

^d *Veda* or *vidia*, signifies knowledge.

^e From *Piklo*, which signifies hell.

^f Pierre Duysburg, cited by Hartknoch.

^g Most authors have supposed erroneously, that *givoitor* signifies exclusively a serpent; it has been shown by the author of the dictionary of three languages, that it means an animal, and that it corresponds with the Polish primitive *zyvot*. See Dict. trium. lingu. by Szyrid.

supposition of two doctrines, the one for the people, founded on the worship of animals, the other reserved for the priests, and exhibiting in allegories the imaginary powers and resources of nature. But it is only the followers of the *mystico-symbolical* system of Heidelberg, that can undertake to explain by the numbers three and twelve, the relations of so many divinities, whose very names are hardly known, and by no means understood. *Kurkho* appears to have been the divinity that raised the fruits of the earth, and presided over the rural feasts, *Pergubrios* was the god of the groves and woods, *Waizganthos* protected the culture of hemp and lint, *Perlevenu* taught men the use of the plough, and *Perdoyt* received the offerings of fishermen. The rural festivals, which were common to them with other barbarous nations, accorded with the rudeness or simplicity of their faith. Part of the harvests was consecrated, and on these occasions it was customary to offer sheep and goats in gratitude for the divine bounty; but these festivals were too often sullied by the sacrifice of human victims. The first missionaries and some of the Teutonic knights were tortured and put to death; it may, however, be urged in extenuation, that they themselves provoked the natives to commit such crimes, by overturning their altars, prohibiting the exercise of their religion, and compelling them to become Christians.

Feasts and
sacrifices.

The sanctuaries of the ancient Prussians and Lithuanians were chosen in the solitude of woods and vallies, many of their trees were sacred; the oak at Romanow, famous on account of the miracles and fables with which it is connected, was levelled to the ground by the missionaries. Another at Thorn is supposed to have once been a station of defence for a company of knights. A man on horseback, it is said, could turn in the hollow trunk of an oak at Wehlau, and it is affirmed that two Margraves of Brandenburg made the attempt, and succeeded before a great number of people; the same tree fell from old age about the beginning of the sixteenth century. Two sacred lime trees were held in great veneration, one of them about six miles

Sacred oaks
and lime
trees.

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govern-
ment, &c.**

from Rastenburg, has given its name to a Catholic pilgrimage, and the Lithuanian peasants, not many ages ago, used to repair to the other, and offer sacrifices to their deities.

The Pruczi were commended by Adam of Bremen, their humanity to those who suffered shipwreck; they seem to have lived under the government of a great many independent rulers, whose authority was limited and shared by the people as well as the priests. Their flocks, corn and honey afforded them abundant provisions; they made strong drink from mare's milk, and clothed themselves with the furs, in which they carried on an advantageous trade with neighbouring nations. The houses of their chiefs were made of wood, their fortresses on the frontiers were built of the same materials, but the courage of the inhabitants was their best defence. Their greatest enemies were the Poles, at that time little removed from the savage state, they made incursions into their country, carried off their children, and laid waste their fields. Hospitality was the virtue of the ancient Pruczi, the peaceable stranger was always welcome, but none were permitted to enter their sanctuaries, or to approach the sacred trees under whose shade the images of their gods were adored. If any ventured to do so, the offence might be punished with death. The same people, says an historian, "have blue eyes, fair hair and a ruddy complexion," a description which is not very applicable to the Samogitian and Lithuanian peasants, who are believed to be the only unmixed descendants of the Pruczi; but it is likely that the fair inhabitants, sprung from the Guttones or Goths, formed the dominant class. A distinction of ruling and vassal tribes is proved by many events that occurred during the war between the Pruczi and the Teutonic knights; at the same time, it is not less certain that mere slaves could never have defended themselves with so much valour.

History.

Their government, of which the stability depended on the priesthood, was not assuredly exempt from the ordinary imperfections of human societies; but it may be in-

ferred from the silence of history, that they continued longer than neighbouring nations in a state of comparative prosperity. Their obscure tranquillity was not often interrupted until the end of the tenth century, at that time ^{Missionaries.} zealous missionaries discovered a new field for their exploits. The Prussians having put to death a monk in the year 997, that attempted to change the worship of their fathers; the Polish princes, who had lately become Christians, made use of that pretext to take possession of a country which offered them many advantages. Boleslas the First, avenged the death of Saint Adalbert, and devastated Prussia with fire and sword. But that violent method of conversion was not attended with success, the Prussians maintained their freedom, and adhered to their superstition. The same people gained a signal victory over the Poles in 1163, and invaded several provinces on the Vistula. Waldemar the Second, king of Denmark, having unfurled the *danabrog* or the red and white banner of the holy cross, subdued in the beginning of the thirteenth century, the greater part of Livonia and Prussia; the latter country remained faithful to him, even after the year 1227, when he lost all his other conquests. The Prussians revolted against the weak successors of Waldemar, and soon became very formidable to the Poles. The Polish princes unable to check their invasions, implored the assistance of the Teutonic knights, a religious and military order, which originated during the mania of the crusades, and of which the chief duty was to subdue the infidels, if they refused to listen to the sermons, or be converted by the miracles of the missionaries. The Sword-Bearers, another order of knights, had already settled in Courland, and the adverse fortune of Waldemar the Second, afforded them the means of wresting from him a part of Livonia. It was then that the Teutonic knights were invited into the country of Culm, which was made over to them by Poland. A hundred knights, under the command of Hermann of Balk, were the first settlers, and com-

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of Prussia.****Change of
govern-
ment.**

menced the subjugation of Prussia with a degree of courage that was only equalled by their cruelty. Their capital or principal station was transferred to Thorn in the year 1230, and it was from that place that they made continual invasions into the territory of the Prussians. So judicious a choice is the best proof of the military genius of their chiefs. Their policy too is not less worthy of admiration; by force and address they made, within the period of 53 years, the complete conquest of a country that had resisted for four centuries the victorious arms of Poland. Three times the Prussian nation revolted, and as often a few thousand knights triumphed over an ill-armed people. The Prussian nobles were too often disunited, and some were base enough to betray their country. The provinces conquered one by one were protected by strong castles, which the vanquished were compelled to build. The great master fixed his residence in 1309 at Marienburg, a fortress that has since resisted the shock of artillery, its thick walls and massy vaults, the large central pillar, and the halls filled with antiquarian and historical monuments, are often visited by strangers.^h

About the same period, the German language, which was spoken by most of the Teutonic knights, was introduced into Prussia. The ancient Pruczi, some of them converted, others settled in Livonia, no longer maintained a contest, which was accompanied with many disasters. The nobles that had been baptized, were admitted into the Order, and the people exchanged their state of vassalage for a much more rigid slavery. The numerous German colonies, that were invited by the Order, built flourishing towns, to which almost republican privileges were attached. Thus, were gradually formed the three orders of provisional states, of which the diets were composed, the sovereignty remaining in the hands of the Teutonic knights. The prosperity of the Order was the chief cause of the pride, depravity and licentiousness of the different members; indeed

^h See Busching's Description of the Castle of Marienburg.

the same vices characterized all the societies of the same sort, composed for the most part of the nobles of every nation, united by fanaticism and the love of plunder. The tyranny of the Teutonic knights became so unsupportable that the inhabitants chose rather to submit to the yoke of the Poles. An event gave rise to a long, though sometimes interrupted war, in which the Order lost its military glory and at last its independence.

The decline of the Order may be dated from the battle of Tannenberg, which was fought in 1410, and in which a very great number of the knights were slain. Not long before, in the time of the great master Conrad of Jungingen, the order possessed Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, Samogitia, Prussia, Pomerelia and the New Mark. In Prussia alone, were contained 19,000 villages, 55 towns, and 48 fortified castles; its revenues amounted to the sum of 800,000 Rhenish florins. The army commanded by the great master Ulric of Tannenberg, was not less than 83,000 men, and of that number more than 40,000 were slain. The remains of the same army met at Marienburg after the defeat, and there were found only three knights of so distinguished a rank as to entitle them to be eligible to the office of great master. This was not the first time that the great masters had risked the welfare of the order. Wallenrode had assembled at Kowno in the year 1394, an army of 200,000 soldiers belonging to the order, and 46,000 foreigners, for the purpose of conquering Lithuania. The knights met on the banks of the Niemen, and were invited to an entertainment by their general. Contemporary writers state that a servant or waiting-brother held a small canopy of golden cloth above every knight, that all the dishes and drinking-vessels were made of gold or silver, and that each guest was permitted to carry away his cup and plate after the feast. But in a few months afterwards, the same army, like that of Napoleon, crossed the Niemen in the most deplorable condition, an epidemic disease cut off those who had escaped the sword of the enemy. The ruin of the order seemed to be the necessary con-

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fall of the
order.Luxury and
wealth.

**BOOK
CXV.**

Assassina-
tion of
Lezkau.

Subjection
of the Or-
der.

sequence of the battle at Tannenberg. The small number that had met at Marienburg were besieged by Jagellon, and all the provinces hastened to submit to the victor. But two men, Henry Reuss, the new great master, and Conrad Lezkau, the burgo-master of Dantzic, saved the knights from destruction. Lezkau, faithful to ungrateful tyrants, brought them auxiliaries, and formed alliances. He thought that the order, taught by adversity, might respect the laws and privileges of towns; he prevented them from plundering the peaceable inhabitants, and protected the citizens against their oppression. The knights in return, resolved to put him to death. The great master concerted his measures with one of his relatives, a commander of the order, who persuaded the unsuspecting Lezkau to accompany him to a fortress. The executioner refused to fulfil his task, and knights were found base enough to assassinate the very man who had saved their order. That crime opened the eyes of the people; Dantzic, Elbing, Thorn and other towns, as well as the nobility of several provinces, entered into a league against them in the year 1440. The whole of Western Prussia revolted in 1454, and placed itself under the protection of King Casimir the IV., who confirmed the privileges of the inhabitants, and the country formed in reality, a state wholly independent of the republic of Poland, which was no longer under the government of the king, and which had at that time its separate diets. The disastrous war, which was the consequence of this revolt, lasted thirteen years, and in the course of it, that part of Prussia, which had remained under the authority of the knights, was laid waste by the Poles. It is said that more than 2000 churches were destroyed, and out of 21,000 villages, 18,000 were reduced to ashes. The peace concluded in 1466, confirmed the Poles in the possession of Western Prussia, which since that time has been called Polish or Royal Prussia by geographers. The Teutonic knights were suffered to retain the remaining part by acknowledging themselves the vassals of Prussia.

A state of dependence must have been insupportable to

an order which had been accustomed to consider itself a sovereign power. The knights attempted to withdraw themselves from their allegiance by negotiations, and when these were not attended with success, they had recourse to arms. A fresh war, that broke out, continued six years, and was terminated in 1525 by the peace of Cracow, which annihilated the power of the Teutonic order, and changed completely the constitution of Prussia. Albert of Brandenburg, the great master of the order, was acknowledged in this treaty as the hereditary great duke of Prussia, and the vassal of Poland. Thus terminated an empire founded on violence, and which had existed for three centuries; from a rank almost equal to that of sovereigns, the Teutonic knights descended to the condition of nobles.¹

Albert introduced the Lutheran religion into Ducal Prussia, and founded the university of Koenigsberg in 1544. The elector Joachim Frederick added in 1618, the duchy of Prussia to the states of the electoral house of Brandenburg, which has since that time kept possession of it. By the treaty of Wehlau in 1657, the duchy of Prussia was raised to the rank of an independent sovereignty by the elector Frederick William. His son and successor, Frederick I. assumed of his own accord, and by his own authority, the title of king in 1700. Poland was the only power which for a long time refused to acknowledge his title.

The kingdom of Prussia rose from the ruins of the Teutonic order, but it sunk into insignificance during the Swedish and Russian wars in Poland. The population in 1700 did not exceed 700,000 souls, and more than a sixth of that number was cut off by the plague in 1709.² Frederick William invited a colony of 20,000 protestant Saltzburghers, who fled from the persecution of a fanatic bishop. These colonists were followed by others from Swisserland, Alsace and the Palatinate. But the progress

¹ History of Ancient Prussia by Bacsko and Kotzebue.

² Susmilch, (Gottliche Ordnung, l. 320,) supposes that twice the number died of the plague.

BOOK of the population was anew retarded, by the Seven Years' **CXV.** War, and according to the census of 1775, Eastern Prussia, or the whole kingdom, as it existed in 1772, contained only 785,000 inhabitants.¹ It was then only a vain the electors of Brandenburg derived from the pos Prussia. A great change has taken place since 1 the division of Poland, the king obtained the forme Prussia and the territory of Netze, both of which contained a population of 416,000 souls; by this means, a commercial intercourse was opened between Prussia and Brandenburg, and the exports of Poland were rendered dependent on the Prussian government.

Division of
Poland.

The industry, population and prosperity of the country continued to flourish, until Frederick II. influenced by ambition and his notions of aggrandisement, imagined that he could strengthen his state by extending his dominions. Poland was destroyed by two new partitions, and two new provinces wholly peopled by Poles, were added to the kingdom, the one was called Southern Prussia and the other New Eastern Prussia. From the year 1795 to 1806, the superficial extent of the kingdom was not less than 56,000 square-miles, and the number of inhabitants amounted to 4,045,000, namely, 964,000 in Eastern, and 817,000 in Western Prussia, 1,387,000 in Southern, and 837,000 in New Eastern Prussia.

Present ex-
tent of
Prussia.

Napoleon set out from the banks of the Seine, and overturned the frail edifice erected by Frederick the Great. Almost all the conquests in Poland, many of those made by Frederick himself, were detached from Prussia, and the kingdom was reduced to its ancient limits.^m The conquered territory was not altogether restored after the defeat of Napoleon; part of the district of Netze was included in the new great dutchy of Posen, which is formed by the western extremity of Southern Prussia. A national or Polish government was secured to that great

¹ Busching Erdbeschreibung, volume ii. page 11.

^m Eastern Prussia contained in 1809 only 835,000 inhabitants. Hassel's Statistical Tables.

dutchy by the last treaties, and it is no longer united with the Prussian monarchy. The kingdom contains within its present limits about 16 or 1700,000 inhabitants, of whom 300,000 are Poles, and 3 or 400,000 Lithuanians, or descendants of the ancient Pruczi. The population of the great dutchy amounts to 900,000 souls, and the number of Germans is not less than 160,000. The two countries have no political connexion with the German confederation, and on that account they are sometimes denominated the *non Germanic States* of the Prussian monarchy. They are entitled, under the name of Provincial States, to their representative assemblies, and, consequently, their deputies are likely, at no distant period, to appear at the congress of the states, which are subject to the king of Prussia.

The physical geography of Prussia resembles that of the Description of Prussia. Sarmatian plains, or the ninth physical section of Europe, which has been already explained in the description of Poland. The sandy but fruitful plains in Poland extend across the dutchy of Posen, and, becoming gradually less fertile, occupy almost the whole of Western Prussia. Heaths are succeeded by marshes, and the coast on the Baltic is terminated by downs which unite with those in Pomerania. But the nature of the soil is very different in ancient Prussia or in the country between the Vistula and the Memel. The low land on the banks of these two rivers is fertilized by inundations; at a greater distance from them, a clayey or argillaceous ridge is covered with forests, or studded with lakes; hills are scattered in different directions, but the highest or the *Galtgerben* near Kumechnen, is only 506 feet above the level of the Baltic.^a None of the others are more than 300, and the steep heights by which the coast is bounded, vary from 150 to 200 feet.

The Niemen or the Lithuanian *Nemony*^c rises in Lithu-Rivers. ania, and throws itself by two branches, the *Russe* and the *Gilge*, into the maritime lake of Curisch-Haf. The Ger-

^a Hassel's Geography of Weimar, III. 533.

^c Nemony, an adjective that means tranquil, or invariable probably from *niemowny* or *nie micny*.

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man name of the Niemen is derived from the town of Memel, which is built at the outlet of the same lake. The river of the hills, the ancient Prussian *Prigolla* or *Prigora*, the modern Preyel, is formed by the efflux of the lakes in the interior; it is enlarged by the addition of the *Alle*, a considerable stream, and flows into the Frisch-Haf. The Vistula, the Polish *Wisla* or the German *Weichsel* divides itself into three branches, one retains its name, and enters the Baltic on the north of Dantzic, the other or the *Old Vistula* sheds its scanty streams into the Frisch-Haf, and the third or the *Nogat* flows into the same lake. Geographers have been led to suppose, and not without probability, that the Vistula is not so deep as it once was; it is certain that it may be forded in the vicinity of Thorn.

**Maritime
lakes.**

Two lakes, the Frisch-Haf and Curish-Haf, which have been already mentioned, may be considered the most remarkable phenomena in the physical geography of Prussia. The word *haf* signifies a sea in the Danish and Swedish languages. That word, imported perhaps after the conquest of Waldemar the Second, is now applied on the coasts of Prussia and Pomerania, to denote all the lakes that are situated at the embouchures of the Oder, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel and other rivers. They cannot be strictly termed gulfs or bays, for the water is fresh, nor lakes, for they have a direct communication with the sea by navigable straits.

**The Frisch-
Haf.**

The largest in Prussia are the Curish-Haf and the Frisch-Haf or fresh water lake, which is about sixty miles in length, and from six to fifteen in breadth. It is separated by a chain of sand banks from the Baltic sea with which it communicates by a strait called the Gatt. The strait in many places does not exceed the depth of twelve feet, and as the Frisch-Haf itself is still more shallow, the commercial advantages that might be attributed to the lake from its position on the map, are apt to be overrated. The Curish-Haf is not less than sixty-six miles in length, and its breadth varies from fifteen to thirty.

**Curish-
Haf.**

The *Curisch-Nerung*, a stripe of land, divides it from the open sea; it is narrower, but more elevated than the one which confines the *Frisch-Haf*. The sand banks and shallows on the lake are so numerous that it is only navigable for boats; and they too are exposed to frequent hurricanes. The *Curisch-Haf* is so called from the ancient Cures or Koures, who inhabited its banks, and [who in their Finno-Estonian dialect, gave the name of *Menta-Niemi*, or promontory of pines to the narrow tract by which the lake is separated from the main land; hence some Greek traveller, whom Pliny copies, called the same promontory the *Mento-Nemen*. The fishermen, that reside on the banks of the lake, still call themselves Cures. The climate is tempestuous, and their frail cottages are sometimes buried under heaps of sand.

It has been supposed that these lakes were formed by the gradual sinking of the land, others attribute their origin to the inundations of rivers, and it has also been maintained that they were separated from the Baltic, for, according to some hypotheses, that sea covered at one time part of Prussia and Poland. From the comparatively late period of which any knowledge can be gained from history, it may be inferred that the Baltic sea, swollen by extraordinary tempests, has made some irruptions, that its waters have crossed and covered for a time the *Nehrung*, that a change of position has thus been occasioned in the embouchure of the *Gatt* or the strait that joins the *Frisch-Haf* with the sea. It is certain indeed that in 1894, the mouth of the strait was situated at *Lochstett* on the north of *Pillau*, and it is not improbable that *Pillau* was then an island. ^{Changes in the appearance of the lakes.}

But the great revolutions, which it is imagined, the soil of Prussia has undergone, must have taken place at an epoch anterior to history, perhaps to the existence of man. In these remote ages, the most remarkable production of Prussia was formed, the one, which for more than three ^{Succin, or amber.}

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thousand years has excited the curiosity of naturalists, and the avidity of traders. *Succin* or amber is a substance to which hitherto no fixed place has been assigned in the empire of nature. It is uncertain even at present, whether it belongs to the animal or vegetable kingdom, almost all writers agree that it forms no part of the mineral. It is a sort of solid bitumen, very light, of a vitreous fracture, a milky white or yellow colour; when rubbed, it attracts light substances, it is combustible, evaporates and diffuses an agreeable odour. *Succin* is that sort which is most crystallized and transparent, and what the Prussians term amber, has a less vitreous fracture, and a more earthy appearance. The same substance was called *glar* or *glas* by the Goths, and the *Glasiswoll* or palace of amber walls, is a magical creation in a mythology, that is probably more ancient than that of Odin. *Electron* is the Greek word for amber, and, on account of its quality of attracting light bodies when it is warmed by friction, the terms, electric force, electricity and others of a like kind have been derived, so that an insignificant fossil has given its name to the most imposing and terrible phenomena in nature.

Opinions
concerning
the origin of
amber.

The opinions concerning the origin of amber are very many and contradictory. Heinitz, in a memoir which he published on the subject, supposes that its formation must be attributed to forests submerged by the ocean, and afterward covered with sand; the resinous particles are distilled into amber, and the rest of the wood forms a residuum or *caput mortuum*. The same writer supports his opinion by an experiment of Wolf, the celebrated chemist of Dantzic, who succeeded in making artificial amber from the root of a tree, by a process which lasted several years. But what the particular tree was, is not mentioned, and the details of the experiment are not explained. M. Girtanner affirms that amber is formed by a large ant, while others imagine that it is produced by a fish or an aquatic animal. Although its origin is uncertain, it is known that amber must have passed from the

fluid to the solid state, for foreign substances, such as leaves, insects, small fish, frogs, water, pieces of wood and straw are often contained in it. BOOK
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A very high price was given for amber or rather pure *succin* by the ancients; it was considered as valuable as gold and precious stones, and the Phenicians were the first who navigated the North Seas in quest of this substance. Its value is at present much diminished, but in some manufactories, for instance at Stolpe in Pomerania, and Königsberg in Prussia, workmen are still employed in making from it, small jewels, scented powder, spiritous acid, and a fine oil that is used as a varnish. Part of the raw material is exported by the Danes and Italians, who gain a considerable profit in manufacturing it. But Turkey is the staple market for the commodity; the trade is in the hands of the Armenians, and a certain portion of amber is carried every year to the holy Kouba at Mecca. The quantity which is found in Prussia amounts annually to more than two hundred tons, and the revenue which the crown derives from it, is equal to three or four thousand pounds. Use and
value.

The raw material is obtained on the Prussian coast between Pillau and Palmnicken, a tract of land about eighteen miles in length. It is only, however, after the violent north and north-west winds that any large quantity is driven to the shore. Quarries have been opened at Dirschkemen on the hills near the coast, and their produce is less variable. The same substance is deposited in other places in the interior of Prussia, and the largest piece of amber, which has been yet seen, was found at Schleppacken, about twelve German miles from the Lithuanian frontier.^p The high hills of Goldapp, at the distance of seventy-five miles to the south-east of Königsberg, abound in amber, and a great quantity might be obtained from the heights and vallies on the Vistula in the neighbourhood of Thorn and Graudenz. Locality.

Wheat, barley, rye, Prussian manna, millet, buck- Agricultu-
ral produce.

^p That piece of amber is fifteen inches in length and seven or eight in breadth; it is kept in the Museum at Berlin.

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wheat and peas are cultivated in Prussia. The culture of the potatoe is carried to as great an extent in Eastern Prussia as in Ireland, and it forms in both countries the principal sustenance of the people. A small volume, written by a citizen of Gumbinnen in Eastern Prussia, was published in 1792; among other economical discoveries, the author mentions a great many methods of using potatoes, he made them into spirits, flour, candles and starch. Hops and tobacco flourish in many parts of the country, and the culture of culinary vegetables, although less common than in Germany, is by no means neglected. The produce of the fruit trees is not sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants, and a great quantity is every year imported. Hemp and lint are two articles of considerable exportation; the former thrives best in the western, and the other in the eastern provinces. The agricultural produce of the maritime provinces, their trade in corn, and the ordinary methods of farming, shall be fully examined in a different chapter.

Forests.

The forests consist of oak, lime, mountain ash, alder, pine and birch-trees, but the large and lofty oaks are not so common as they once were in Prussia. Potashes and tar are still exported. More than seventy different species of fish frequent the rivers and the lakes. Eels and murenæ are dried and exported, and caviar is obtained from the sturgeons in the Frisch-Haf.

Animals.

The bear and the elk, the wild boar and the stag are often seen in the woods and the forests. The horse, the most useful of the lower animals, has been much improved in these countries. Two different kinds are mentioned, the one of Tartar origin is common in Lithuania and Poland, the other sprung from German, French, Neapolitan and Danish horses, was brought into Prussia by the Teutonic knights. Of these two sorts, the former is supposed to be fleet, but not so sure-footed as the other. All the royal studs in Eastern Prussia have, since the marshes of Stalluspahnen were drained, been removed into that district, which is now called Stutamt, and

there are probably more horses in Trakhemmen, the principal town, than in any other place of the kind in Europe. It might, however, tend to promote agriculture, if the great number of stallions, which are kept there, were scattered over a wide extent of country. A third sort, which is small, short-legged, but swift and hardy, is used in some of the provinces; it is believed to be the remains of a native race, common at one time to Prussia, Lithuania and Scandinavia.

In the account, which we are about to give of the different towns in Prussia, our principal stations shall be Königsberg on the Pregel, and Dantzic on the Vistula.

Primislas the First, king of Bohemia, advised the Teutonic knights in 1255, then his allies, to build a strong castle, which they named Königsberg or the royal mountain; it is called *Krolewiecx* and *Karalauczuge* or the royal town by the Poles and Lithuanians. That capital of the kingdom is about fifteen miles in circumference, but a great part of it consists of gardens, and some places of marshes; the present population does not exceed sixty-five or seventy thousand souls. The numerous quarters into which the town is divided, are surrounded by ancient ramparts, that may perhaps be considered ornamental, but are not certainly, in any way useful for its defence. The *Kniepof*, one of the finest, is built on an island in the Pregel, and Busching mentions that the wooden piles on which the fortifications rest, are now become as hard as stone. The castle is a very ancient building, and the view from one of its turrets extends across the Frisch-Haf, the port, the river, the town and a great part of Prussia. The ancient citadel is now almost surrounded with manufactories and store houses. The harbour has not more than twelve feet of water, and that part of the Frisch-Haf with which it communicates, is still more shallow, so that the cargo of every large vessel is brought into the town in boats. Trade, however, particularly that in corn and naval timber, has not decreased, there are besides different manufactories, that of amber is now fallen into decay. The univer-

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sity was rendered illustrious by Kant, the most subtle and perhaps the most obscure of modern philosophers. Important documents relative to the ancient history of Prussia, have lately been discovered in the library and archives of the town.

Banks of
the Frisch
Haf.

The fortress of Pillau, the military key of eastern Prussia, is situated on a peninsula to the east of the capital. The inner coasts of the peninsula, and the country near the main land, are denominated the *paradise of Prussia*. Verdant coasts, fruit trees and gardens, thick woods and villages, a sea that abounds in fish, and to which many fishing boats repair, the large and tranquil basin of the Frisch-Haf, covered with swans and different water fowl, form part of a view, which may be seen by sailing on the lake, by ascending the observatory of Pillau, or from the neighbourhood of the *Pfundbude*, an old custom-house.

Towns on
the Pregel.

Wehlau, *Intsterburg* at the confluence of the Alle, a place of nearly six thousand inhabitants, and *Gumbinnen*, a new town peopled by seven thousand individuals, and the capital of a government, which forms Lithuanian Prussia, are situated eastward of Pillau on the higher banks of the Pregel.

Towns on
the Memel.

Tilsit is situated on the Memel or Niemen, it contains eleven thousand inhabitants, and is the second town in eastern Prussia; it is not less celebrated from its treaty, as from an interview which took place there between the Emperors Alexander and Napoleon. The flourishing town of Memel, a place of considerable commerce, particularly in hemp and timber, is built near the embouchure of the Curisch Haf, the sterile extremity of Prussia.

* The country between Tilsit and the Curisch-Haf, is low and marshy; traversed by two branches of the Memel, the Russe and the Gilge, it is exposed to their inundations. The land does not yield much grain, it is ill provided with wood, but the pasturage is rich and abundant, and the inhabitants might supply the kingdom with the produce of their dairies.

Towns in
the interior.

The fruitful and well wooded plains of central Prussia

extend between Königsberg and the country last mentioned. The ancient castles and modern farms in that part of Prussia are more interesting to travellers than small towns, although the latter are peopled by industrious and well educated burgesses. *Braunsberg* forms a solitary exception, it is built on the Passarge, and its citizens carry on a trade in linen, grain and masts ; it is supposed to contain upwards of six thousand inhabitants. *Rastenburg*, *Bartenstein*, *Heilsberg*, and other places are less populous. Every town in the same part of the country has its particular beverage ; *full-wurst*, a sort of beer, is the ordinary drink at *Preussisch-Holland*, and hydromel is as common at *Goldapp*. *Gerdaunen* is built at a short distance from a lake, remarkable for a floating island, which by its motions indicates the state of the atmosphere, and the inhabitants call it for that reason, the almanack of Gerdaunen. The small town of *Ermeland* is the metropolis of a diocess ; and among the canons of its cathedral, was the celebrated Nicholas Copernicus, the author of the most probable hypothesis concerning the planetary system ; that great astronomer died at Ermeland on the 24th of May 1543.

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The most of the towns in Western Prussia are situated on the banks of the Vistula, the only river that waters the country. Dantzic, the Polish *Gdansk*, from which its modern Latin name *Gedanum* is derived, was in all probability a flourishing city, and not a mere burgh or village in the tenth century. Much of its ancient splendour is now lost. The invasion and conquest made by Waldemar the First of Denmark, appears to have occasioned the settlement of a Danish colony in that favourable position, and it is thus easy to explain the comparatively modern name of *Dantzic*, by *Dansk-vik*, a Danish port or gulf. In many old diplomatic writings the town is called *Dansk* or *Gdansk*. It was enlarged and fortified by the Teutonic Knights, but the inhabitants did not submit tamely to the tyranny of their new masters, they revolted in 1454, and put themselves under the protection and sovereignty of the Polish kings, from whom they received many valuable

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privileges, of which perhaps the most important was the exclusive navigation of the Vistula, for it put into the hands of the citizens, all the maritime commerce of Poland. It continued in possession of several privileges and immunities, until the year 1795, so that it might then have been considered rather a free town or a republick than a dependence of a foreign crown. Its population, which amounted in past times to eighty thousand souls, was reduced before the year 1772 to sixty thousand. The restraints, which have since been imposed by Prussia on the Dantzic trade, compelled many individuals to emigrate; and in 1803, the number of inhabitants, including those in the different suburbs, was not more than forty-seven thousand.

Harbour
and road.

Dantzic has all the disadvantages of an old town, the porches jut into the narrow streets, and disfigure the houses, which are strongly but clumsily built. Of its twenty-one parish churches, thirteen are appropriated by Lutherans, four by reformists or Calvinists, and four by Catholics. It has been remarked that the Calvinists are the most wealthy inhabitants. An astronomical observatory, a large museum of natural history, several learned societies, and a seminary with a library of thirty thousand volumes, prove that the people are not exclusively devoted to mercantile pursuits. The town is surrounded by fortifications, and has supported several memorable sieges. The harbour is formed by the embouchure of the Vistula, and protected by the forts of *Munde* or *Weichselmunde*. The anchorage or what may be more correctly termed the Gulf of Dantzic, is sheltered from the north wind by the promontory on which the small town of Hela is built. A *werder* or low and fertile island between the Vistula and the Motlau was not the least valuable part of the city lands in the time of its freedom. It possessed during the same period a very great trade in grain, wood, lint and manufactured goods; it was the mart of the Poles, who exchanged there the raw produce of their vast territory for the different articles of European luxury. Although its trade was much diminished under the Prussian government, it is certain that in the

Commerce.

year 1803, eighteen or nineteen hundred vessels entered its harbour, and as many sailed from it. But the depredations of the French and the Russians, from which this unfortunate city suffered perhaps more than any other, drained at last the sources of its prosperity; during the short period between 1807 and 1815, it lost the sum of seven millions, and the only branches of industry, which remained, were its sugar works and distilleries. Of late years the calamities of war have been removed, its population, which has been gradually increasing, amounts now to fifty-three or fifty-four thousand, and it is still the first maritime city in Prussia.

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Marienburg, or the Polish Malborg, the ancient capital Werders. of the Teutonic knights, is situated on the banks of the Nogat, a feeder of the Vistula. It is at present a town of five thousand inhabitants, and it carries on a trade in cloth and linen. The werders or low islands in the neighbourhood of Marienburg, Dantzic and Elbing are very fruitful and well peopled. Agriculture and the breeding of cattle are carried to a great degree of perfection; the peasantry are free, and most of them belong to the sect of the Menonites. The land in these islands is very valuable, the price given for a *morgen*, a measure nearly equivalent to an acre, varies from L.40 to L.60. It is a bad crop that returns only twelve for one, the average harvests return twenty, and the good more than thirty fold. Part of the fruit that grows on the same land, is exported to Russia.

The flourishing and commercial town of Elbing, is built on a low and fruitful valley near the werders; its name is derived from the small river of Elbach, which issues from the lake of Drausen. Alfred of Prussia, who wrote a geography of Europe, calls the river the *Iffing*, and the lake the *Truso*. The Iffing then discharged itself into the Frisch-Haf, of which the dimensions are exactly described by the king under the name of the *Estmerc*, and it may therefore be inferred that the Nogat, a feeder of the Vistula, has begun to flow since that period. The harbour

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of Elbing is formed by the canal of Kraffuhl, and large ships cannot advance beyond Pillau. The number of vessels that have arrived in the port within the last few years is supposed to be about fifteen hundred, but in that number are included six or eight hundred Polish boats, and two or three hundred lighters. The trade consists in corn and hemp, the exportations in wine, iron and colonial produce. The houses are solid, but ill arranged, and the total population amounts to twenty thousand souls. A colony of fishermen from the same place are settled at Tolkemit on the Frisch-Haf; they depend chiefly for subsistence on the produce of the sturgeon fisheries, the profits of which, though sometimes great, are very variable.

Other towns
on the Vis-
tula.

The other towns above Elbing and on the banks of the Vistula, are *Marienwerder*, situated in a fruitful district, and containing a population of six thousand souls, *Graudentz*, a town of seven or eight thousand inhabitants, with an important fortress that now commands the Vistula, and *Culm* or *Chelmo* with an insignificant catholic university. The trade of these places consists mostly in linen and woollen stuffs. Thorn, one of the most ancient towns in Prussia, was founded in 1231 by the first great master of the Teutonic order; it became an independent town or republic about the year 1454, under the protection of Poland; its fortifications were afterwards razed by Charles the Twelfth. The people suffered much from the violent persecutions excited by the Catholics, particularly the Jesuits, against the Lutherans. The inhabitants, who amount to nearly nine thousand, are almost all Protestants, and the Catholics are still in possession of their empty churches. A seminary that was founded in 1594, is well known from the number of learned men that attended it. Nicolas Copernicus was born at Thorn on the 10th January 1472. The town is remarkable for its public buildings; one of the bridges on the Vistula is upwards of a mile in length.

Different
inhabitants.

The different classes of inhabitants in Prussia may be divided into nobles, landed proprietors, burgesses with more or less extensive privileges, and peasants, who though

free and capable of possessing land by a law passed on the 11th September, 1811, are still the vassals of the nobles; from this vassalage the peasants on the *werders*, and the inhabitants of the new colonies are exempt. These inhabitants indeed are the wealthiest of the peasantry; their houses are not destitute of elegance, and their children are well educated; but the progress of improvement has been retarded by the devastations committed in the course of the last war. The other extremity of the country is inhabited by Lithuanian peasants, the descendants of the ancient *Prūdzi*, they retain their native dialect, and are still ignorant and slothful. The coarse cloth with which they are clad, is manufactured by themselves, and all of them have a sort of scarf, or as it is called a *margin*, that descends to the legs. The *Koures* wear their margins across their shoulders. The boots and hats of the women are nowise different from those of the men. A plated or white iron girdle loaded with a great many keys is the ornament of every housewife.¹ These tribes are not unworthy of observation, and it is likely that some curious documents concerning them are concealed in the German libraries. It may be remarked, in the absence of all authentic information on the subject, that the *margin* appears to be the same as the plaid of the Scottish highlanders, a circumstance which renders perhaps the singular assertion of Tacitus less improbable than it might otherwise appear, viz. that the *Æsty*i spoke the same language as the ancient Britons.

Some of the Prussian nobles are the descendants of the Nobles, Teutonic knights, who renounced their monastic vows. Other noble families came at a later period from the north of Germany; they were distinguished from the rest by their haughtiness and contempt of their inferiors, qualities which have been gradually softened down by the usages of civilized society. The Livonian nobles were equally proud, but more humane and indulgent to their vassals. The

¹ Bernouilli, *Samlung von Reisebeschreibungen*, VII. p. 332.

BOOK Prussian aristocracy is not a wealthy order; their estates are
CXV. of little value, it is supposed that the greatest annual income derived from the land of any one noble, does not exceed L.2500.

Burgesses. The burgesses differ according to their origin and the size of the towns; thus the descendants of the German colonists are more enlightened than those sprung from the Poles and the Wendes. In Memel, Königsberg, Elbing, Dantzic and Thorn, traces of the ancient freedom enjoyed by the Hanseatic towns may still be observed. If that be true with respect to all these places, it is more applicable to Dantzic than to any other. It may be perhaps worth while to quote the account which a well informed traveller gave of it at a time when it still retained its independence.*

Burgesses of Dantzic. Dantzic is more agreeable to a stranger than the other trading towns. As most of the inhabitants are merchants or manufacturers, most of them are active and industrious, At the same time, their commercial relations with Berlin, England and other foreign countries, have contributed greatly to improve the people. Many of those, who from prejudice are supposed to be only desirous of gain, are not insensible to the charms of literature and the fine arts. There is scarcely a father in the town, who does not give his children an education conformable to his circumstances and station in society. Every young man can read, write, and cast accounts; many of them are sent to foreign universities, and they are well instructed at home in ancient and modern languages.

Republican spirit. The good and bad citizens may be easily distinguished, they never mix with each other.† As the greater number are united by a common interest, any thing like fraud or dishonesty excites general indignation. The germs of discord by which other capitals are agitated, are not known. No individual can encroach on the rights of another; no such homage is paid to talent, wealth or even

* Hermes.

to services conferred on the community. Although that republican spirit may tend to depress the powers of a few great minds, it also defends the state from a greater evil, the designs of artful and wicked men. .

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No mendicants are permitted to remain in the town, because every healthy individual may obtain employment in the numerous manufactories; every infirm person can find an asylum in the public hospitals, and every vagrant ought to be confined in a house of correction, where he may have some chance of being reformed. Public women were banished beyond the walls, and the marriage vow could not be broken with impunity, as it often is in other capitals. A foundling hospital is not the least useful institution in the town, mothers never destroy the fruits of their illicit love, and infants are never exposed on the streets.

Nothing increased more the prosperity of Dantzic, than the freedom of commerce and industry. Every man could follow without constraint the profession which was best suited for him, and thus add both to the public weal and his private fortune. As to its internal administration, the government of Dantzic, was one of the most equitable, that can well be imagined. Any magistrate, more especially if he was a merchant, whose probity was suspected, or who had obtained suffrages by intrigue or promises made to the electors, was deprived of his situation, the citizens vied with each other in turning him out of office. It is true that the merchants lived at great expense, all of them had at least a country house and a garden. Their houses were finely furnished, and one large apartment was set apart for a library. The men were defended against the cold by the most costly furs in Europe; addicted to hospitality, or fond of ostentation, they gave sumptuous entertainments, kept a number of horses and a great retinue of servants. The Russians and French obliged them to dispense with such superfluities; which, however, were not disproportionate to their income before the arrival of these strangers. It has been remarked that the luxury of the

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opulent citizens, was not of that frivolous nature, which is common in other large towns. It is certain that they loved their country, spared nothing in embellishing it, and were charitable to their poorer brethren. The fair sex acted an important part, and their influence was attended with good consequences; society was by this means improved and polished, and drunkenness became a vice wholly unknown among the better sort of burgesses. Such was Dantzic in the days of its independence, and the happy effects of that independence have not been effaced under the Prussian government.

**Great
Dutchy of
Posen.**

The great dutchy of Posen forms physically a part of Poland; the same plains, the same kind of sand intermixed with clay and black loam, the same fertility in corn, and the same sort of forests may be observed in the two countries. A traveller whose work is little known, maintains that the rye of Posen is finer than any in Brandenburg, the orchards of plum, apple, and pear trees, more extensive, whilst morel and asparagus grow spontaneously and in abundance. The mushroom too is very common in almost every part of the country. The peasants rear a great many bees; the poultry is as large and not inferior to any in France, and the fields abound with partridges and pheasants. The land tortoise is exported to Prague, and the castor builds its dikes and dwelling in the heart of the forests.*

**Rivers and
marshes.**

The author of the latest statistical account informs us, that many large marshes, covered with weeds and brushwood, are still undrained in the province, particularly along the winding course of the 'Obra.' The Wartha is the principal river in Posen, and a canal by which the country has been much improved, forms a communication between the Vistula and the Oder by means of the Netze.

Peasantry.

The peasantry are slothful, ignorant and superstitious, drunkenness is a common vice amongst them; all

* Bernouilli's Collection, IV. p. 229.

† Holsche's Statistics of Southern Prussia.

the legislative enactments, all the efforts of the Prussian administration to improve their moral and intellectual condition, have hitherto been accompanied with slow and uncertain success. According to the traveller, whom we have already quoted, the condition of the peasants in the time of the republic, was little better than that of negroes; the petty nobles carried off their daughters, and if the parents ventured to complain, they might perhaps receive many stripes; in short, there was neither law nor justice for a peasant. The same class, says a writer who resided in the country, lived better than the German labourers. Abundance of food, coarse but warm clothing, dirty, but large cottages, a bed of down, the privilege of singing, dancing and getting drunk, are consolations in a state of slavery. It is difficult to improve a race degraded by ages of servile habits, particularly if superstition occupies the place of morality.

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The Catholic clergy are now improved, but in 1781 they burned witches, and prohibited the reformed religion; many of them had their concubines, and all of them sold indulgences.* They are still opposed to the enlightened system of the Prussian government, for it tends to diminish their revenue and power. Although the nobles have a reasonable share in the administration of affairs, they still hate and despise the Germans. Their conduct may be compared to that of an indocile and obstinate pupil towards his schoolmaster. Licentiousness has its charms for the great, and anarchy its pleasures for the people. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the great dutchy is gradually becoming a German province; out of a population of nine hundred thousand inhabitants, a hundred and sixty thousand are Germans; and what is not a little remarkable, more than twenty-four thousand two hundred are of the reformed religion. This change has been effected by the successive migrations of industrious manufacturers from Silesia and the agricultural colonies of Swabia,

Catholic
clergy.

Population,
colonists.

* Bernouilli, Book C.

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and it is but justice to confess, that these migrations have been favoured by the most enlightened members of the Prussian nobility. The Jews are in this country the class of men by whom improvement has been most retarded; the sole possessors of capital, every branch of industry is in their hands; they lend money at exorbitant interest, purchase at a low rate the different manufactured articles, and sell them in different countries as the manufactures of Silesia.

Millers and
Germans.

The German millers form almost a distinct caste; the happy inhabitants of a romantic country, possessing numerous flocks, abundantly provided with fish, poultry and game, they make up the class between the peasantry and the nobles, and neither associate with the one nor the other, all of them intermarrying among themselves. Strangers to poverty, they enjoyed the blessings of a retired life, but their solitudes were invaded, and their houses pillaged, during the French wars.

Poznan or
Posen.

Poznan or Posen, the ancient capital of Great Poland, is situated between two hills, on the banks of the Wartha and the Prosna; it is encompassed by a double wall and a deep ditch. The suburbs on the opposite side of the Wartha, is built near a large marsh, and it, as well as the town, is exposed to frequent inundations by the overflowing of the river. The cathedral and the town house are the finest buildings; the others are an ancient castle, imperfectly fortified and situated on a hill between the two rivers, a college, which was endowed by bishop Konarski, and which belonged formerly to the Jesuits, lastly, a seminary or gymnasium, founded by the bishop Lubranski, and now called the *Athenæum Lubrancianum*. The population, besides the garrison, amounts to twenty-three thousand inhabitants, and in that number are included four thousand Jews. The town is enlivened by three annual fairs, and its trade consists principally in cloth and leather.

Manufacturing
towns.

Rogozko, a place of four thousand inhabitants, lies to the north of Posen; on the west of it and on the banks of

the Wartha, are *Obrzico*, *Birnbaum*, and *Schwerin*, all of which are peopled by Jews and manufacturers. The town of *Meseritz*, (according to its Polish name, *Miedzyrzycze*), belongs to the Marquis of Lucchesini, and contains about four thousand inhabitants; the greater number of them are employed in manufacturing cloth. The roads from Moscow and Warsaw, as well as those from Stettin, Berlin, Leipsic and Breslau, cross each other in the neighbourhood of *Meseritz*.

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Several manufacturing towns are situated on the Silesian frontier; but *Bomst* or *Babimost* as it is called by the Poles, is partly peopled by vine-dressers. The culture of the grape in a country under the fifty second degree of north latitude is certainly a phenomenon, although the produce is never abundant, and although it may be compared to vinegar rather than wine. *Kargowa* or the German *Unruhstadt* may be mentioned on account of its cloth manufactories. *Fraustadt* contains six or seven thousand inhabitants, exclusively of its garrison; it possesses a considerable trade in corn, cattle, wool and cloth. The town was formerly a dependence of the principality of *Glogau* in Silesia. It was taken by Casimir in 1343, who agreed to protect its privileges, among others that of coining money, which it had received from its princes. *Lissa* or *Leszno* is still more populous, it contains nine thousand inhabitants; of that number four thousand are Jews, and a large synagogue is erected for them in the town. The trade of the inhabitants consists chiefly in linen and cloth, and it is supposed that there are not fewer than two hundred manufactories. *Lissa* was at one time not much larger than a village, but Count Raphael Lezinski invited and granted the free exercise of their religion to a great many Protestants, who had migrated from Silesia, Bohemia, Moldavia and Austria. The same town is the birth place of the counts of Lezinski, the family from which Stanislas, king of Poland and afterwards of Lorraine, is descended. *Lissa* belongs at present to the count Sulkowski. If we still continue our route along the Silesian frontier, we observe

Protestant
colonies.

BOOK CXV. the seigneurial town of *Rawitz*, peopled by nine thousand individuals, more than seven thousand of whom are Lutherans. According to a statistical account, there were a few years ago, three hundred and twenty-seven master manufacturers, and the quantity of cloth made annually, was not less than fourteen thousand pieces. *Rawitz* belongs to the count *Sapieha*, one of the most powerful and ancient nobles in Lithuania. *Boianowa* is also a manufacturing town, and it exports annually about seven or eight thousand pieces of cloth. *Krostochin* and *Zeduny* may each of them contain about four thousand inhabitants, principally manufacturers, Jews and Lutherans.

Such are the principal manufacturing towns in the province, and all of them are situated on the German frontier.

Their trade, though still inferior to that of Silesia, is rapidly increasing, and many of the Polish peasants, now no longer in a state of servitude, are employed in the manufactures.

The towns on the Polish side are less populous. *German coffee* or *German money* is a common phrase in Poland, to express whatever is of little value. The Germans may with equal justice retaliate, for a *Polish city* may be applied to signify an ill built and solitary town. At no great distance from the dismal town of *Syrem*, there is a sort of potter's clay, which is sometimes hardened by the heat of the sun into small concave lamina or plates, as if apparently fashioned by the hand of man, a wonder, not likely at present to excite much surprise, although it seemed quite unaccountable to many old Polish writers.

Gnesne or *Gnieszno*, a very ancient Polish city, was the metropolis of a diocese in the year 1000. Boleslas the First purchased the body of Saint Adalbert from the Prussians, who had put him to death. The remains of Adalbert were deposited in the principal church by the same pious king, and a silver tomb was placed over his grave by Sigismund the Third. It is however uncertain if the body of Adalbert be still in Poland, or if the Bohemians carried it off with them to Prague in the year 1038. *Gnesne* is

peopled by four thousand four hundred souls, it carries on some trade in cloth ; and a fair, which lasts eight weeks, is held every year. Many horses and oxen are sold during the fair ; on one side of a large field, a long range of horses is exhibited, on the other, a corresponding one of oxen. The Polish nobles resort on these occasions to the town ; they used formerly to amuse themselves by fighting with each other, being now more refined, they stake their land, money, horses and oxen at the gaming table. The poorer strangers take up their abode in a wood near the road side. Every one chooses his particular spot, at night a fire is kindled, and the supper dressed ; in the meantime songs are heard, and the young dance to the accompaniment of a flute and hautbois. A thousand fires, reflecting their varied lights on the trees and branches, remind the spectator of fairy land, but the fires gradually disappear, and after a short interval of darkness, the music of the birds hails the first rays of the rising sun.*

* Bernouilli.

BOOK CXVI.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued—Germany—First Section—Physical Description of Germany.***BOOK
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THE country, which we are about to describe, has often been styled the *stumbling block of geographers*, a distinction which it owes to its innumerable subdivisions and arbitrary circumscriptions, long contrary and still in many respects ill adapted to any geographical or political system. It shall be our endeavour to put something like order into this chaos, to classify the different details under the proper heads, and, by so doing, to give a plain and clear account of that interesting and important portion of Europe. As to the physical geography of the country, it may perhaps be as well to consider Germany according to its common or vulgar acceptance, which is less at variance than any other, with its ethnographical limits. It must not be forgotten that the Swiss Alps are the sources of many German rivers, that the low countries may be considered the alluvial deposit of these rivers, and the Danish peninsula, the continuation of the Germanic plains. Although it may be necessary to recur frequently to these facts, it is equally necessary not to lose sight of more common notions, sanctioned by political treaties and the opinions of every people in Europe. Having thus considered Germany, determined its mountainous chains, the basins of its rivers, and the difference of its climate and productions, in short,

**General
Divisions.**

the general and permanent characters of its physical geography, in a manner wholly independent of political divisions, we shall give an account of the different countries that make up its vast extent. It may be as well for the sake of method, to class the countries, that are not far removed from each other, or at least do not differ widely in their physical characters and productions, as it may be thus more convenient to enter into the statistical details, and to compare or contrast them with one another. In this way, may be successively described the eastern German states, subject to the king of Prussia, and situated on the Oder and the Elbe, the secondary states watered by the Lower Elbe and the Weser, and the western Prussian states from the Weser to the country beyond the Rhine. It may then be worth while to take a general view of the whole Prussian kingdom, a monarchy incomplete in its limits, and still ambitious of territory. The remaining countries to be described, are the secondary states of Saxony, Hesse and others, which extend from the banks of the Rhine to those of the Elbe, and, secondly, the still better determined region of Bavaria, Wurtemberg, and the great dutchy of Baden. It then only remains for us to give an account of the different Austrian states, and to examine in a political and statistical point of view, the heterogeneous mass, which forms the Austrian empire. All the chorographical details may be included under one or other of these heads, but it would be incorrect to say nothing of the civil condition, the moral and intellectual resources of a nation, that is only prevented by want of union, from being predominant in Europe. By means of these divisions, which are easily understood, may be comprised within a moderate space whatever is interesting or worth knowing in the volumes of those writers, that have attempted to imitate the learned Busching. The necessity of repeating twenty or thirty times, the same facts in the same language, may thus be obviated. It is not that the German method is to be wholly condemned, it is enough that it is ill adapted for the general reader, and not always followed by the best writers in Germany.

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Mountains.

All the German mountains depend on the Alpine or Hercynio-Carpathian range. We shall describe in a different part of this work, the chains that extend from the central nucleus of the Helvetian Alps across the Tyrol, Carniola, Carinthia and Styria, or the *Rhetian*, *Curnian* and *Norican* Alps, together with their branches in Swabia, Upper Bavaria and the country of Salzburg. Their position, the direction of the different chains, and the height of the principal summits have been already mentioned in our notice concerning the European mountains. The south-east part of Germany is thus rendered one of the most mountainous countries in Europe, and the extensive plains at the base of these chains, are greatly elevated above the level of the sea. The great plain of the Danube, or the boundary of the Alpine range, is in several places so much confined, that the Alps appear to be connected with the Hercynio-Carpathian mountains in many parts of Austria. Although separated by the higher plains of Bavaria, the mountains of the Black Forest near the sources of the Danube, connect the two ranges, and a junction is also marked by the falls of the Rhine.

Hercynio-
Carpathian
mountains.

The Hercynio-Carpathian mountains are bounded on the west by the course of the Rhine, by the valley of the Danube on the south, and the Duister on the east. From their northern declivities descend all the rivers, which water the plains of Poland, Prussia and northern Germany. The same declivities form the greater part of Wettrevia, Hesse, Thuringia, Bohemia, Moravia, Upper Silesia, Upper Hungary and Transylvania.

General
character.

That great terrace commands on the north, the immense plains, which extending from the British Channel to the Sound, and from the shores of the Baltic to the Euxine, separate wholly the Alps and the other southern chains from the mountains in the north of Europe. The Hercynian and Carpathian mountains rise above the Sarmatian and Teutonic plains, but their summits cannot be compared with the majestic heights of the Alps. Considered in this point of view, they appear to be the ap-

pendage of a greater range, and to form the northern extremity of the Alps, and the counterpart of the Apennines. But the great difference between the Hercynio-Carpathian chain and the Apennines, consists in the latter being very distinctly separated from the Alps by the deep valley of the Po, and the Adriatic, while the valley of the Danube is less excavated, and confined in its upper part, as has been already remarked, by the branches of the eastern Alps, and the mountains of Bohemia. The mountains connected with the Alps on the west, are united with the Hercynian chain, not only by the Black Forest, but by the continuation of the Vosges in the neighbourhood of Bingen. It is not less certain that the calcareous heights of the Bannat are connected with the mountains of Servia, which join those of Dalmatia, a dependence of the Alps. There is a more obvious difference between the Apennines and the Hercynio-Carpathian range; the first are a continuous and regular chain, and the others, if correctly observed, seem to form a series of lofty plains, on which several small chains rise, and although their summits are evidently separated, all of them are supported on a common base.

This table land crowned with mountains, inclines to the north and the north east. That fact cannot be disputed, it is proved by the course of the Vistula, the Oder and the Elbe; but local irregularities are occasioned by several chains, which rest on these elevated plains. Thus the Erze-Gebirge in Saxony terminate in rapid declivities towards Bohemia, and appear to interrupt the general inclination. But, independently of some detached chains which form an exception to the general rule, it may be established from the course of the rivers that there is a continued though gentle declivity towards the north.

To have a correct idea of the mountainous and wooded regions formed by the Hercynian range, one must imagine himself placed on the Carpathians in the north-west extremity of Hungary. A long ridge, the *Gesener-Gebirge* or the low mountains, of which the general elevation may

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be about four thousand feet, is disjoined from the base of the Carpathians, separates the basin of the Oder and Silesia from the basin of the Morawa or Moravia, and extends to the eastern extremity of Bohemia, where it is divided, and forms an enclosure of mountains round that country.

Riesen-
Gebirge.

The *Riesen-Gebirge* or Giants' Mountains on the north-east of the sources of the Elbe, extend from the south-east to the north-west, and from a number of chains connected by a common base. No river descends from any part of this range, which fronts the Silesian and Lusatian plains, and its highest summits are about five thousand feet above the level of the sea. The *Erze-Gebirge* or metallic mountains are nowhere higher than four thousand feet, the Elbe forms for itself a narrow passage, the chain extends to the sources of the Eyca, and rises above the plains of Saxony, and the hills of Thuringia. The same heights are connected at their western extremity with the *Fichtel-Gebirge* or Pine mountains, from which a branch of them, the *Bomer-Wald* or Bohemian forest turns eastwards, and fronts Bavaria and the banks of the Danube. The elevation of the Bohemian Wald is in some places higher than four thousand feet. The mountains near the sources of the Moldaw are lower by two thousand feet, they extend in a south-east direction, and join the *Riesen-Gebirge*. The *Mittel-Gebirge* or central mountains are situated in the interior of Bohemia, or the basin of the Upper Elbe; they follow the course of the Eyca, and their basaltic summits are from two thousand to two thousand five hundred feet in height.

Thuringer-
Wald.

The small chains beyond the confines of Bohemia, are only connected by hills. Thus, the *Thuringer-Wald*, a continuation of the *Fichtel-Gebirge*, separates partly Saxony and Thuringia from Franconia, and the summits are not higher than two thousand seven hundred feet. It is connected by heights of fifteen hundred or two thousand feet, with the group of the *Rhæn*, situated between Bavarian Franconia and the electorate of Hesse,

its elevation in former times was supposed to have been four thousand feet, but it is not greater at present than two thousand eight hundred. The same summits are connected by volcanic hills with the Spessart in the neighbourhood of Aschaffenburg, and the ancient *Taunus*, now the *Hæhe*, of which the elevation is still lower. All these little chains are separated from each other by vallies, and they appear like so many groups, that extend in different directions from a number of central summits. The range forms itself into a sort of table land or elevated plain at the sources of the Weser; and Mount Meisner rises above it to the height of two thousand feet, an elevation that corresponds with that of the Wester-Wald, a rugged group near the banks of the Lahn. The heights or rocky hills, which, under the vague name of the Westphalian mountains, cover the dutchy of Westphalia, together with part of the country of Munster and Paderburn, and terminate near Minden at the pass of the *Porta Westphalica*, are not higher than a thousand or twelve hundred feet; no point in any part of them appears to be of a greater elevation.

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Westphalia.

A single promontory, of which the highest summit is about three thousand five hundred feet, crowns the plains of lower Germany. It is the *Brocken* or *Bloksberg*, the middle point of the Hartz, that become lower on every side round their common centre, and are only connected on the south with the Thuringer Wald by the broken hills of Eichsfeld.

Such is the general position of the Hercynian mountains, but it is necessary to make one or two observations on the points of connexion between them and the extremities of the western Alps. A high country, intersected by ravines and deep vallies, in which the Steiger-Wald extends to the west, joins the Fichtel-Berg, from whence the Maine takes its source, with the *Alb* or *Rauhe-Alb*, that rises to the height of two thousand five hundred feet, winds along the basin of the Upper Danube, and unites with the more extensive chain of the *Schwarz-Wald* or Black Forest. It

BOOK is from the mountains of the Black Forest that the Danube
CKVI. rises; their elevation is supposed to be about four thousand six hundred feet, they are detached from the Alps of Zurich, and divide the valley of the Rhine from that of the Neckar. The lowest heights of the Black Forest are separated from the volcanic hills of the Oden-Wald, and these last are separated by the Maine from the Spessart. The chain of the Vosges, detached from Jura, extends in a northern direction along the German territory, and receives the new name of Donnersberg. But a more arid ridge, the *Hundsrück* or *the Back of the Dog*, is disjoined from it on the north-west, rises above the basin of the Moselle, confines the valley of the Rhine between Bingen and Coblenz, and approaches the heights of the Westerwald and Taunus. The ridge of the Ardennes between the Moselle and the Meuse, is strictly a part of Germany, for the great duchy of Luxemburg forms a part of the German Confederation, but from the effect of a general, though erroneous opinion, it is usually described along with the kingdom of the Netherlands. The north and north-east extremities, which are without doubt in Germany, form the marshy ridge of *Hohe-Veen* and the volcanic hills of *Eyffel*.

Plains.

Extensive plains are situated round this mountainous region. The largest of them all, is the one which without any other interruption than the course of the rivers, comprehends Lower Silesia, the ancient Lusatia, Brandenburg, that is wholly covered with sand, Pomerania and Mecklenburg, in which some hills are interspersed, Hanover, where an almost imperceptible elevation, overgrown with heath, extends across Holstein, and joins the central and waste lands of Jutland, lastly, the lower part of the ancient circle of Westphalia, there the plain assumes the appearance of a vast heath or moss, an appearance that is exhibited in different places through its whole extent. The large northern plain of Germany may be supposed to form a gulf between the Hartz, the Erze-Gebirge and Thuringian mountains. The Saxon plain, of which Leip-

sic is the centre, is distinguished from the rest by a higher elevation and a more fruitful soil. The centre of Germany is almost covered with mountains, but little space is left for the plains, unless we consider as such, the level and contiguous heights, by which the rivers are separated. Thus, the narrow vallies of the Kocher and the Jaxt are overtopped by a lofty ridge, while, on the other hand, the large valley of the Neckar is constantly varied by detached hills. That part of the country is diversified by picturesque scenery, it abounds in verdant and well wooded vallies, watered by clear streams. But the character of the vallies in the centre of Bohemia, and in Upper Swabia, is perhaps still more imposing. The banks of the Maine, the Fulda and the Moselle, are remarkable for their varied scenery, and the valley of the Rhine unites the grandeur of a fine landscape with the appearance of a highly fruitful country. The large and high plain of Bavaria, watered by the Danube, extends to a great distance; the land is cold, but fruitful, it is in some places covered with marshes, and in others with forests of fir trees. But in the Austrian territory, the plains are confined by branches of the Alps; the traveller wanders near precipices, crosses defiles, or descends into vallies as rich and as varied as those in Switzerland.

The rivers in Germany may be now considered. The Danube has been already mentioned in our account of Hungary and Wallachia, but it was only the central and lower part of its course, for the higher part of it is situated in Germany. That great river rises on the heights of the Black Forest, from three sources; the *Brig-Ach* and the *Brige*, which are both more considerable than the third or the *Donau*, a feeble stream that is enclosed in a stone basin, and formed into a fountain in the court of the castle of Donau-Eschingen. It is therefore the two first that may be considered the source of the Danube. The infant river, flowing rapidly but without any cascade, receives the *Iller* above the town of Ulm, and by its junction is rendered navigable. Its depth is now about eight feet, and it in-

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and *Isar*.The *Inn*.Eddies of
the *Danube*.*Ens*.*Morawa*.*Rhine*.

creases gradually to forty-two. The *Lech* and *Isar* descend from the base of the Tyrolian Alps, and traverse Bavaria; one of them passes through Augsburg, the other waters Munich, and their swollen streams flow into the Danube. Enlarged by these accessions, it winds to the north near Regensburg or Ratisbonne, approaches Austria, and is united with the Inn. The long course of the Inn, almost equal to that of the Danube, its noble origin from a lake in the midst of alps and glaciers, and its clear blue water, so different from the troubled streams of the Danube, are perhaps the only reasons, which have of late induced some German geographers to consider it the principal river; in the rest of Europe the Danube maintains its ancient empire. The upper part of the course of the Danube terminates at the confluence of the Inn. That part of its course from Passau to Vienna may be divided into a distinct region; the river passing between mountains, has in many places no other valley than its bed, and even that is confined by rocks, by which its waters are agitated and broken. The rocky island of Warth, opposite Grein, divides its course into two branches, the *Häsegang*, which is not navigable, and the *Strudel*, which may be crossed without danger, since its rocky channel was excavated by miners. At no great distance below that part of its course, its waters are impelled against rocks, and precipitated on one side into the gulf of the *Lueg*, and on the other, into the *Wirbel*, a dangerous and rapid eddy. As it approaches Vienna, its streams are diffused over a broader surface, it encloses several islands, and its course becomes gradually slower. The *Ens* is the largest river, which it receives from the south; but even that feeder is inferior to the *Morawa* or *March*, which conveys to it at the confines of Hungary all the streams of Moldavia.

The Rhine may be more correctly called a German river than the Danube, although the source and the mouth of the Rhine are not situated in Germany. That fine river rises in the south-west part of the canton of the Grisons, a country in which all the streams are denominated

Currents or *Rheinen*, a word that appears to be of Celtic or ancient Germanic origin. It is thus difficult and vain to determine whether the *Fore Rhine*, (*Vorder-Rhein*), is formed by several springs on the sides of Mount Nixenadun near the base of Mount Crispalt, a branch of Saint Gothard, or the *Hind Rhine*, (*Hinter-Rhein*) issuing majestically below a vault of ice, attached to the great glacier of Rheinwald, ought to be considered the principal branch. But at all events the central *Rhein* is only an insignificant branch, of which the distinctive name is the *Froda*; although the inhabitants of the neighbouring village of Medel, call it by the generic term, *Rhein*. Descending from these snowy heights, which are more than 6000 feet above the ocean, the Rhine leaves the country of the Grisons, and throws itself into the lake of Boden or Constance, at the level of 1250 feet. M. Hoffman, a distinguished German geographer, supposes that the course of the Rhine was once very different; that as soon as it passed the territory of the Grisons it flowed down the mountains of Sargans, entered the lake of Wallenstadt, from thence into that of Zurich, and, following the present channel of the Limath, united with the Aar opposite the small town of Rein.* That hypothesis, founded on some local observations, is indeed worthy of attention, but it requires to be corroborated by additional facts before it can be admitted. Following its present course, the Rhine, after leaving the lakes of Constance and Zell, arrives at a lower branch of the Alps, a little below Schaffhausen; it crosses them, and forms the celebrated fall near Lauffen, which has been often admired, although its elevation is little more than fifty feet, an elevation inferior to that of the secondary falls in Scandinavia. After its fall at Lauffen, it is about 1173 feet above the level of the sea, but when it reaches Basle, it is not more than 765. That part of its course, which is very rapid, is broken by a fall near Laufenburg, and the dangerous eddy of Rheinfelden. The Rhine unites there with the Aar, a river al-

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concerning
its ancient
course.Falls of the
Rhine.

The Aar.

* Hoffman's German Sketches.

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CXVI.****Neckar,
Maine.****Moselle.****The Ruhr
and the
Lippe.****Delta of
the Rhine.**

most equal to it in size, and one, which, after being enlarged by the streams and lakes of Switzerland, brings a greater body of water to the Rhine than that which it receives from the lake of Constance. After it passes Basle, the Rhine turns to the north, and waters the rich and beautiful valley, in which are situated Alsace, part of the territory of Baden, the ancient Palatinate and Mayence. Its course onwards to Kehl is very impetuous; but flowing afterwards in a broad channel, studded with agreeable and well wooded islands, it assumes a very different character, its banks have been in several places gradually undermined, and its waters are covered with boats. The breadth of the river at Mayence is about 700 yards; as it proceeds in its course, it waters a romantic, though fertile country; and a line of hills covered with vineyards, extends at no great distance from its banks. It receives in that part of its course the Neckar, which conveys to it the waters of Lower Swabia, and the Maine, which in its numerous windings collects the streams of the ancient Franconia. The Rhine is confined by mountains from Bingen to the country above Coblenz; small islands and headlands are formed by the rocks, and according to a supposition, which is by no means confirmed, its course was in ancient times broken by a cataract between these two towns. In its picturesque passage through that high country, at the base of many old castles, suspended on rugged rocks, the Rhine receives among other feeders, the Lahn, that is concealed under mountains, and the Moselle, which, free from shallows, marshes, and every incumbrance, resembles in the mazes of its meandering course, a canal fashioned by the hand of man, and conducted through vineyards and fertile meadows. The confluence of these two rivers may be considered the boundary of the romantic course of the Rhine. It then flows in an open and plain country, and receives among other feeders, the Ruhr and the Lippe. Having reached Holland, its three artificial branches, the *Waal*, the *Leck* and the *Yssel*, form the great delta in which are situated the wealthiest towns in that industrious country. But its waters

are divided into numerous canals, its ancient channel is left dry, and a small brook, all that remains of the majestic river, passes into the sea. According to every principle of physical geography, the Leck and the Yssel, if not the Waal, must be considered the present mouths of the Rhine. The Meuse has obtained at Rotterdam and Dordrecht, a distinction which it does not deserve; it is enough that it inundates the Biesbosch, it has no claim to any other embouchure than that at Moerdyck. But it is with rivers as with men, and both are occasionally raised into notice by chance or fortune, and the influence of incorrect opinions. The Delta of the Rhine has undergone so many natural as well as artificial revolutions, so many slow and imperceptible changes, that it is very difficult to discover its ancient embouchures.

The Ems sinks into insignificance after the Rhine; it is The Ems. however no tributary river, it has its particular basin; its embouchure is large and imposing, and it forms by its inundations the gulf of Dollart. A more important river is The Weser. formed in the mountains of central Germany by the *Werra* and the *Fulda*, two currents nearly of equal size, and which are called the Weser after their union.^b The Weser receives the Aller, which is enlarged by the Leine, becomes The Aller. very broad near its mouth, and flows into the North Sea. From the shallowness of its bed, it is not navigable for large vessels below the town of Bremen, and in some places its waters are subject to temporary stagnations.

The Elbe, which is larger than the Weser, rises in the The Elbe. *Riesen Gebirge*, or Giants' Mountains, and is known at its source by the Slavonic name of the *Labbe*. Its principal sources are the White Fountain, at the base of the *Schnce-Kuppe*, and the eleven fountains of the Elbe in the Navarian Meadow. The river takes the name of the Elbe after its junction with these streams, and it is precipitated by a cataract of two hundred and fifty feet into the valley

^b Busching supposes that the *Werra* is the principal branch, and considers its name a modification of that of the Weser.

BOOK of Elb-Grand. It receives from the south of Bohemia
CXVI. the *Moldawa* or *Mulda* or the Bohemian *Oritza*, which as
 The Mol- it is deeper and broader than the Elbe, ought, perhaps to
 dawa. be considered the principal river. It then issues from the
 circular basin of Bohemia, through a very narrow opening
 across steep calcareous mountains, an opening that appears
 to have been formed by a natural revolution, and to have
 afforded a passage for the water, with which the lower part
 of Bohemia has at one time been covered. Descending
 into the plains of Saxony, the principal rivers that flow
 into the Elbe, are the *Saale* and the *Mulda*; it is increas-
 ed by the Havel from the sands of Brandenburg, but it
 might be more correct to consider the Havel, a lake, or ra-
 ther a series of lakes, that are chiefly fed by the Spree.
 The Elbe seems first to direct its course towards the Baltic
 sea, but it turns to the west, and after having passed the
 hills of Luxemburg, it divides itself into several branches,
 which encompass the low and fruitful islands on the south
 of Hamburg. Vessels arrive at the port of that town,
 where the Elbe becomes suddenly very broad, and re-
 sembles an arm of a sea, rather than a river. The effect
 of the tides is obvious at the distance of twenty-two Ger-
 man miles, and at the time of the flux, the course of the
 river towards the sea is wholly obstructed. The Elbe
 mixes its water with the sea below Brunsbittel, but its
 embouchure is placed lower down by the mariners and
 traders, that resort to Hamburg; according to them, its
 mouth is situated opposite the harbour of Cuxhaven.

The Oder. The Oder, which in the German dialect of Pomerania
 is called the *Ader*, and of which the ancient Wendo-Slavo-
 nic name is the *Wiadro*, a word that signifies a *pitcher*,
 takes its source in the mountains of Moravia, in the an-
 cient circle of Olmutz; but the *Elsa*, which rises from the
 base of the Carpathians, is in reality the principal source.
 The Oder traverses the whole of Silesia, inundates, under-
 mines and changes almost every where its low and sandy
 banks; its channel is in many places obstructed by the
 large oak trees, that it overturns in its passage through

the forests of upper Silesia. The same appearance of confusion and disorder, is observable throughout the course of the Oder; ill embanked by the sands of Brandenburg and Pomerania, it forms in many places large fens and turbid lakes. The Wartha, a tributary stream of the same description issues from Poland, and at its junction is almost as large as the principal river. The Oder divides itself afterwards into different streams, and flows round marshy islands. The eastern branch, between Gartz and Stettin, or the *Great Reglitz*, as it is called, is best adapted for navigation; the other retains the name of the Oder, and both fall into the lake of Damansch. The *Papen Wasser* or outlet of that lake communicates with the Frisch-Haf or fresh water sea. According to local usage, the fresh water sea is divided into two branches, the great and the little Haf. That immense lake is wholly fed by streams and rivers, no salt water ever flows into it. It passes into the Baltic by three outlets or rivers, the *Peene* on the west; the *Swine* on the centre, and the *Divenou* on the east; of these the Divenou is the smallest, and the Peene the largest. They are indeed the only embouchures of the Oder, their banks have undergone considerable changes, and more than one ancient city built on an insecure foundation, is now buried under their streams.

Such are the principal rivers in Germany. We ought next to mention the remarkable lakes, but there are not many that merit that distinction. The lake of Boden or Constance between Swabia and Swisserland, the lake of Chiem in Bavaria, that of Atter in Upper Austria, of Cirkints in the calcareous mountains of Carniola, those of Dummer and Steinhuder in Hanover, of Waren or Muritz in Meklenburgh, and the series of lakes formed by the Havel in Brandenburg, are all of them modified by local circumstances, so that the description of them cannot be separated from that of the particular countries in which they are situated.

The climate of Germany is greatly modified by the elevation and declivities of the country, but independently of

BOOK that cause, it does not admit from its extent in latitude
CXVI. of any vague or general definition. It may be divided,

First zone. however, into three great zones, and these too are susceptible of other subdivisions. The first is that of the northern plains, of which the temperature is not cold, but humid and variable; they are exposed to every wind, while fogs and tempests are conveyed to this region from two seas. The north-west plain is subject, from its vicinity to the North Sea, to frequent rains and desolating hurricanes. The influence of the Baltic on the north-east plain is less powerful, the climate, though colder, is not so humid and variable. The second general zone comprehends all the central part of Germany; Moravia, Bohemia, Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, Hesse and the country on the Rhine. The mountains in that extensive region form a barrier against the effects of the maritime climate. The sky is not obscured by mists, and the regular order of the seasons is not interrupted by winds and tempests. The elevation of the soil renders the climate colder than in other countries on the same latitude nearer the level of the sea. This zone, the most agreeable of any in Germany, extends from the forty-eighth to the fifty-first parallel. It may be subdivided into three regions; the first is Hesse and Saxony, where the grape yields only an acid and imperfect wine, but the peach and the apricot flourish; the second includes Bohemia, Moravia and part of Franconia; where, from the height of the mountains, the snow is of longer continuance, but the effect of the summer's heat is more sudden and powerful, so that abundant and early harvests depend in a great degree on favourable exposures; lastly, the territory on the Maine, the Neckar and the Rhine, there the grape is of a better quality; woods of chesnut and almond trees grow in different parts of the country, and the summers are warmer and less variable than in the northern provinces of France. The climate of the last region, in which the central towns are Mayence, Heidelberg and Wurtzburg, is finer than any other in Germany, and the most salubrious and agreeable of any in Europe. The third general

zone is that of the Alps. The lofty heights and rapid declivities connect very different climates; thus the culture of the vine ceases in Bavaria and Upper Austria, and appears anew with fresh vigour in the neighbourhood of Vienna. The eternal glaciers of the Tyrol and Salzburg are contiguous to the vallies of Styria and Carniola, covered with fields of maize or vineyards, and almost bordering on the olives of Trieste; and the lemon trees of Riva. The limits of these regions, in as much as they are marked by distinct climates, shall be more accurately defined in our account of the different parts of Germany.

The great abundance of mineral springs, both hot, cold, bitter and acid, is characteristic feature of the German territory. The thermal springs of Aix-la-Chapelle, Pynnont, Carlsbad, Tiplitz, Baden on the Rhine, Bruckenaue and Wiesbaden, attract every year many wealthy visitors. Those of Ischl, Baden near Vienna, and many more, though less resorted to, are nowise inferior. The acidulated springs of Selters, Driburg and Rohitsch, the bitter waters of Seidenschütz, Seidlitz and other places, are sufficient proofs that the German soil abounds with veins or deposits of the most varied minerals. But it must not be inferred that Germany is ill provided with good and wholesome water for the ordinary purposes of life; the country is in general well supplied with that article of primary necessity, and the only exceptions are to be found in some marshy districts of Westphalia, and in some of the cold vallies in Salzburg.

We may now mention the most remarkable objects in the three natural kingdoms, we shall commence with the mineral.

Some mines of copper and iron, some traces of gold in arsenic ore, and of silver in lead mines, have been discovered on the mountains of Moravia, Silesia and Bohemia. The metallic productions, however, are not abundant, or of much value, but in the same part of the country are observed quarries of marble, mines of coal, and several precious stones, among others, a sort of emerald, the Silesian

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CXVI.****Bohemia
and Saxony.**

chrysoprasus. The chain, that separates the basin of Bohemia from the plains of Saxony, may be called by way of distinction, the metallic region, for it contains indeed the richest deposit of native silver in Europe, and the only one, which has not hitherto been apparently diminished. It is certain that during the last forty years of the eighteenth century, a number of Saxon crowns, not less than twenty-two millions, (L.3,570,500) were coined at Freyberg. The same mountains are not so rich in tin, copper and iron, but of these metals, tin is the most common, and the mines on the side of Bohemia are not perhaps inferior to those of Cornwall. The Bohemian silver mines, which were at one time worked with profit, are now neglected or exhausted. The gold washings which, if ancient writers have not exaggerated, were formerly very productive, are now of secondary importance in Bohemia and Saxony. But the one and the other of these two countries contain every possible variety of metals in greater or smaller quantities, and in both are also found the most useful varieties of granite, marble and porphyry, as well as crystals and precious stones, less perfect it is true than those of the east, but among which, the Saxon topaz and Bohemian garnet are still considered valuable. There are fewer minerals in the hills of Thuringia and Eichfeld, but an elevated country between the base of these mountains, and that of the Hartz, covers an immense layer of copper, and near the middle part of this lofty district, is situated the town of Mansfeld. The depth of the bed below the ground varies from a hundred and sixty to two hundred and eighty feet, it contains also petrifications and very curious fossil remains. A short way to the east, and even under the channel of the Saal, a subterranean stream of salt water extends probably from the base of the Erz-Gebirge mountains to the salt lake of Eisleben, and the celebrated salt springs of Halle. The extensive deposit of copper appears to terminate near the

Thuringia.**The Hartz.**

base of the Hartz range. But the miners in the Hartz mountains work silver, lead, copper and iron; their produce, however, is every year diminishing, and it is never

equal to that of the metallic chain. Iron is the only metal generally worked and diffused in the heights between the Weser, the Maine and the Rhine. It is most abundant in the mountains of Westerwald, of which the greater number are situated in the dutchy of Nassau, but it is also very common in the ancient dutchies of Westphalia and Berg, from the latter of which, the workshops and armouries of Solingen, are supplied with steel, that is only inferior to that of Styria, and if it be excepted, better than any other in Germany. The working of coals and salt mines in the same part of the country is still more lucrative, and the same observation is applicable to the mountainous region on the rest of the Rhine, or the continuation of the Ardennes and the Vosges, where no mineral production is more valuable than the coal, and it appears, in the branches of the Ardennes at least, to be connected with other strata in the low countries. The porous basalt and volcanic ashes of Andernach, which are used in making the cement that is called *Trass* by the inhabitants, may recal the numerous volcanic formations in the lower basin of the Rhine. The mines in the Black Forest yield silver, copper and iron, in small quantities. The two most remarkable objects in the eastern branches of the Alps, that extend across the Bavarian and Austrian territories, are the long series of salt springs, that follow the base of the northern Alpine chain in the direction of Reichenhall in Bavaria, and Hallein in Salzburg, to Ischl and Clusser above the Ens in Austria; the other is that rich deposit of the best iron in Europe, situated in Styria, on the east side of the Noric Alps. Besides these, ought to be mentioned the great lead mines of Carinthia, those of quick silver near Idria, which, after the mines of Almaden, are the most productive of any in our continent. What appears to us most worthy of notice in the mineralogical geography of Germany, has now been stated; a number of other minerals, which, however curious and interesting to the geologist, are of secondary importance, shall be mentioned in the account of the countries in which they are situated.

BOOK
CKVLWester-
wald.

Tyrol, &c.

Styria.

**BOOK
CXVI.****Vegetable
kingdom.****Forest trees.****Central
zone.**

The forest trees hold the first rank among the vegetable productions of Germany, for they not only supply the inhabitants with timber for their ships, houses, manufactories and mines, but a considerable quantity is every year exported into different countries. The oak abounds in the central region, and plantations of them are seen almost on every hill. The other trees are the beech, the ash, the mountain ash, the poplar, the pine and the fir; in sheltered spots, the walnut, chesnut, almond and peach trees display in the spring their rich and varied blossoms. This description is applicable to the central zone of Germany; the coniferous trees, and principally the pines, which in that region are confined to the heights and some arid districts, become more common in the sandy plains watered by the Oder and the Elbe. But these trees are only of an ordinary quality, and it is vain to look in northern Germany for the hard pine and the lofty fir, with which the fleets of Scandinavia are furnished. The forests of pine and fir trees follow the course of the rivers, and extend generally from north-west to south-east; other trees, such as change their leaves, are seldom seen amongst them. To these monotonous and sombre forests succeed wastes covered with heath, a plant equally social, and which exhibits in miniature the vegetation of the neighbouring forests. Extensive meadows along the banks of rivers and marshes, or alluvial deposits near the sea coast, make up the remaining part of the northern plains of Germany. The fine hills of eastern Holstein, of maritime Mecklenburg and the island of Rugen, must not be confounded with these plains, for their vegetation is different, and the oak reappears on a more fruitful soil. That narrow frontier ought not to be separated from the islands and Dano-Cimbrian peninsulas.

**Northern
plains.****Alpine
zone.**

The south of Germany, which is connected with the Alps, exhibits probably two scales of vegetation, that of the northern declivity from the Tyrolese Alps to the Danube, and that of the eastern declivity of Austria, Styria and Carniola, not to mention the southern frontier. As

to the first of these divisions, the beech and the maple appear to grow at the height of five thousand five hundred feet, and perhaps the *Pinus umbra* at a still greater elevation.^c But that region of coniferous trees does not terminate below the height of four thousand feet, to give place to a region of beech trees, as it does in northern Switzerland, according to the admission of M. Wahlenberg himself. At an elevation so low as two thousand feet, the hills in Bavaria are covered with the juniper and the red pine; whilst the oak and the beech in the neighbourhood, though of ordinary size, are by no means rare. The birch is, after the pine and the fir, the most common tree on the declivities. The country between the Lech, the Iller and the Upper Danube, corresponds better with the classification of M. Wahlenberg, and it is probable that the apparent anomalies may be explained by the action of the prevalent winds, and the nature of the soil. The vegetable zone of Austria, or the eastern declivities of the Alps, exhibits a more rapid succession from the region of eternal snow on the Glockner, from the heights adorned with the Alpine carnation, the *valisiana celtica*, the *rododendron*, the *soldanella* and the *aritia*, to the vineyards on the frontiers of Hungary, and the olive woods of Istria. The precise limits of the different vegetations have not been indicated by botanists; the culture of the vine ceases at the height of two thousand feet, that of wheat at four thousand, and the country at a greater elevation, is mostly covered with pasturage and coniferous trees.^d

The flora of central and southern Germany abounds chiefly in umbelliferous and cruciform plants, but the *primulacea* and *phyteumes* are most common in the Alpine districts. Bulbous plants succeed best in the warm valleys of Austria, and heath, *vaccinium* and *juniper* in the northern plains. The humid meadows on the mean heights

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^c Compare Wahlenberg, Tentamen de vegetatione Helvetiae, sect. 34; Kœsthofer, Bemerkungen, and Schow's Geography of Plants.

^d Schow.

BOOK are enamelled with anemones, hyacinths, violets and lillies.
CXVI. The low woods and hedges in the same part of the country, are formed by the elder, the mahaleb plum tree, the fruit-pendant rose, the medlar, the cornel and the eglandine. The plants in central Germany add to the beauty of the country; the verdure of spring continues for a long time, and many Alpine shrubs and flowers follow the course of the rivers from their source. Thus, the *cytisluburnam* extends along the banks of the Rhine and the Danube.

Grain. Grain of almost every kind is cultivated in Germany; wheat and barley are most common in the south, and the Bavarian winter wheat is preferred to every other. Smelt is generally cultivated in Baden and Wurtemberg, on the Rhine and the Maine; maize appears in great profusion in Styria, Moravia and the Tyrol; buckwheat abounds in the sandy plains on the north, and manna or *festuca fluitans* is cultivated on the banks of the Oder. Germany, taken in its whole extent, produces certainly a greater quantity of grain than is necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants, and the surplus produce is exported to Swisserland, Holland, Sweden and some of the eastern provinces of France. If there ever be again a scarcity of grain, the increasing culture of the potato, which has become very general in the north, might of itself be sufficient to prevent the recurrence of such famines as have happened more than once in Saxony and Upper Austria.

Vegetables. Few countries are better provided with alimentary vegetables than Germany, and many of them are of excellent quality. The cabbage, for example, which is exported to most countries in Europe under the name of *sauer-kraut*,* surpasses any that grows in Belgium; and the Germans say as much of different sorts of turnips, carrots, peas and beans. It cannot indeed be disputed that the culture of these vegetables, so well adapted to the pa-

* *Sauer*, acid or sour, and *kraut*, cabbage, hence the French corruption *choucroute*.

tient character of the Germans, has been carried to a great degree of perfection. Gardening is much modified by climate, and although the rich inhabitant of Holstein cannot boast of his gardens, it is certain that the people in other countries, less favoured by nature, derive their subsistence from the culture of fruit trees and culinary plants. The health of the Germans may be partly attributed to their great consumption of vegetables.

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Gardening.

The hop is a very useful plant, and one that is well cultivated in Germany; it finds indeed in that country its soil and climate. The abundant harvests, particularly in the neighbourhood of Brunswick, in Bohemia and Bavarian Franconia, supply the numerous breweries, which, after all that has been said of English ale and porter, maintain their ancient renown. The culture of tobacco, although clouds of smoke rise at every jovial meeting, is not much improved; and the German tobacco is still much inferior to the American, the Turkish and the Persian. The madder of Silesia, the saffron of Austria, and the *reseda luteola* or dyers' weld are now less used in the arts, and the cultivation of them has proportionally diminished. Germany does not produce more than a third part of the hemp, which is used for its sails and cordage. The prejudice in favour of Russian hemp might at once be dispelled by the appearance of the crops which grow in the territory of Baden; in that country the stem rises sometimes to the height of sixteen feet, and a single pound of hemp has been converted into twenty yards of cloth.^f Lint, on the contrary, is very generally cultivated, and the most of it is manufactured in Germany.

Useful
plants.

The vineyards of Germany have been mentioned in our observations on the climate. Those on the banks of the Rhine and the Maine have wholly lost their celebrity. The Johannisberg, the Nierenstein, the Lieste, the Stein and others have been mentioned by geographers, extolled by poets, and they are still drunk by a small number in Rus-

^f Hassel's Introduction to Germany, p. 40.

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sia and Holland. But the example of the nobles, the low price of French wines, and the obstacles imposed at the custom houses on the exportation of the German wines, prevent their circulation, and ere long the culture of the grape may be abandoned, which, under a more patriotic administration, might reward the labour of the husbandman.^s The north of Germany is now generally supplied with the wines of the Garonne, which are brought into the country by Bremen, Hamburg and Stettin. The Hungarian wines are consumed in Silesia, as well as in Poland; and the vineyards of Austria, Styria and the Tyrol, though perhaps inferior in quality, return a considerable profit. Those on the banks of the Moselle, the Neckar and the lake of Constance yield only ordinary wine, and the produce of the vineyards of Naumburg and Graunberg, like that of Witzzenhausen and Jena, may be compared to vinegar.^h The produce of the vineyards in the whole of Germany, is supposed to amount annually to twelve millions of *eimers*, a quantity equal to the half of what is raised in Hungary, and a sixth part of the produce of France.

The culture of fruit trees is better suited for the climate; apples, pears and cherries are mostly cultivated in the north; the chesnut, the almond and the peach in the central zone. The apple of Borstorf, that excellent fruit, which has been mentioned in our account of Russia, has been transplanted in Germany, but without much success. Attempts have been made to force the mulberry and to introduce silk worms, but the climate, with the exception of a small part of Austria, is ill adapted for it. It is now imagined that these useful insects may be nourished on the leaves of other trees indigenous to the country.

^s It is amusing to read the effusions of the German poets in praise of their vineyards. An excess of loyalty or wine is apparent. "What wine can be compared to our own." "Let the man who disdains the generous gifts of the *free Rhine*, drink with the slaves on the banks of the Seine." "The loyalists of Frankfort and Mayence drink occasionally their sovereign's health in Rhenish wine. It would be much better if the navigation of the Rhine were rendered free.

^h *Scribentur Jena vel potius Gellennæ, ubi nascitur acetum.*

Numerous herds of cattle form no insignificant part of the wealth of a country so abundant in pasturage as Germany. The oxen are of two kinds. The one is that of the Alps, common in Austria, Bavaria, the Tyrol and Salzburg; the cattle are reared in these countries in the same way as in Switzerland, the pastures are as fertile and aromatic, but it is certain, though it cannot be easily explained, that the produce of the dairy, the milk and the cheese, are neither of so rich nor so good a quality. The other breed is that of East Friesland, and it is almost the only one in Westphalia, Holstein and the low districts; but the best of these large and heavy oxen are imported from Jutland. The Styrian ox is of Hungarian origin, and the Swiss breed, which has been introduced into Hohenlohe, is thought better than any other in Germany. According to a statistical report lately published, the number of horned cattle in the country is supposed to be about twelve or fourteen millions, the number of sheep is not less than thirty millions, and the breed of the latter has been crossed and improved in most parts of Germany, and particularly in Saxony and Silesia. The hog, of which there are three varieties, is very common in Westphalia, Bavaria and Pomerania. Germany exports a great quantity of salt meat, hams and hides. The different kinds of wool are more than sufficient for its numerous and important manufactories.

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Animals.
Oxen.

The German horse is more remarkable for its strength than the symmetry of its form; but much has of late years been done to improve the breed of that valuable animal. The best carriage horses are said to be those of Mecklenburg and Holstein, and it is with them too that the heavy cavalry are supplied. The horses of East Friesland are strong, but heavy and ill made; those of Styria and the other provinces bordering on the Alps, are hardy and sure footed. The swiftest horses are bred in Bavaria, and racing is no uncommon amusement in that country. The horses from the heaths of Lenna in Westphalia are very fleet, but small and ill proportioned. The light cavalry are mostly mounted on horses from Poland and the Ukraine.

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CXVI.Poultry,
Game, &c.

The provinces are well stocked with poultry; there is no scarcity of turkies in Styria, nor of geese in Pomerania and Westphalia. Bohemia abounds with pheasants, and the heaths and forests afford shelter to every kind of game; one exception only is mentioned, it is said that the red partridge has not hitherto been seen in Germany. The numerous flocks of wild geese are destructive to the grain, and the stork is protected by popular superstition. The heron frequents the banks of the Rhine; the eagle of the Alps, different kinds of hawks, owls and crows are common to the mountains of Austria, and the *parus pendulinus*, a bird that has been noticed in our account of Astrakhan, suspends its nests from the rocks and the trees. All the birds of the Carpathians and the Alps, have been observed in southern Germany, and those on the shores of the Baltic are found in great numbers throughout the northern plains.

Sea fishing. The sea fishing in Germany is not of much importance, although some industrious inhabitants of Hamburg, Altona and Embden, repair every year to the whale fisheries in Greenland, and the shoals of herring on the banks of Shetland. The important fisheries in the Baltic, which are shared by Prussia, Mecklenburg and Denmark, shall be more fully mentioned in another chapter. At present, it may be remarked that the river fishings in Germany, though valuable, might be rendered more so. The large huso, and many different kinds of fish are taken in the Danube; it is said, indeed, that several species of the *cyprinus* and the *perca*, are found in that river, while the eel is never observed in its waters, nor in that of its feeders.¹ It might be worth while to distinguish the different species that belong to the upper part of the Danube before its junction with the Inn, from those that the Inn brings down to it from the Alps. The salmon abounds most in the Rhine, but it is by no means rare in the Elbe and the Weser. The sturgeon is found in the Oder, and the finest trouts in the rivers that flow from the Hartz and the Erze Gebirge. The murena is common in the nume-

Fish in the
Rivers.¹ Cuvier.

rous lakes of Pomerania and Mecklenburg. The lake of Luneburg is noted for its lampreys, that of Chiem for its silver salmon, and the lake of Wurm for its blue umber. There are besides many other sorts, which it is unnecessary to enumerate. The pearls that are taken in some streams in Bohemia, Saxony, and the Ardennes, are for the most part small and of little value.

The urus and the elk exist no longer in the forests; but the bear, the lynx, the wild cat and the badger are sometimes seen. The wolf is now rare, they descend from the Carpathians and the Ardennes, but the peasants have extirpated them from the centre of Germany. The *hamster* or *mus cricetus*, which appears to be indigenous to Saxony, at all events, thousands of them are sometimes dug out of the earth, the field mouse and the water rat are the most destructive animals. The fox, the marten and the beaver are not nearly so common as they formerly were. The princes and nobles of former times were the proprietors of immense parks abundantly stocked with game. There were in several principalities, fewer inhabitants than heads of game. The deer, the wild boar, the hare, and the rabbit were suffered to destroy the harvests of the peasantry, and what these animals spared, was generally rendered useless by a numerous party of princely or noble sportsmen. More civilized and more enlightened, the German princes find higher enjoyments than that of seeing a stag torn to death by dogs, and, according to the court newspaper, it is only in some domains in Bohemia, Moravia and Saxony, that twelve thousand head of game are killed in three days, or that three thousand hares are collected in a park, and destroyed in a single day for the diversion of a royal sportsman.

The industrious beaver is still observed on the heights of Boehmerwald, and on the banks of the Salza. The wild goat and the chamois of the Alps wander near the glaciers in the country of Salzburg; the marmot inhabits the Tyrol and Upper Bavaria, and the wild animals on the Carpathians and the Alps are, in general, common to the south-east of Germany.

BOOK CXVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Germany. Second Section. Prussian States on the Oder and the Elbe.

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AGREEABLY to the plan which has been already laid down, we shall commence our account of Germany with that of the countries watered by the Oder and the Elbe. These countries make up the four Prussian provinces of *Silesia*, and also a part of the ancient Upper Lusatia, of *Saxony*, including the northern part of the ancient kingdom of Saxony, the dutchies of Magdeburg, Halberstadt, the country of Erfurt, and other small districts that extend to Eichsfeld; thirdly, the province of *Brandenburgh*, with lower Lusatia, and all the ancient and modern Marks; lastly, Pomerania, both the ancient Prussian Pomerania, and that which has lately been ceded by the king of Denmark, who had obtained it from Sweden to indemnify him for the cession of Norway; and thought fit to give it up to Prussia, for a sum of money. These German states belonging to the King of Prussia, are peopled by five millions three hundred thousand inhabitants, and occupy a surface of two thousand five hundred, or two thousand six hundred German square miles.

Silesia, position, &c.

The large and fine province of Silesia is contiguous to the great dutchy of Posen, which has been already described; it is bounded by the kingdom of Poland on the east, by Bohemia, Moravia and the sad remains of the

kingdom of Saxony on the west, and it is connected by its broad northern frontier with the other Prussian provinces. Thus its position is of mutual advantage to the province and the monarchy. According to the most accurate details,* the surface of Silesia is about 720 German square miles, or nearly 12,000,000 English acres. The population amounted in 1819 to 2,061,589 individuals, and it is at present supposed to be greater than 2,100,000.

The *Quades* and the *Lygians* are generally believed to be the earliest inhabitants of Silesia. Some authors maintain that the word *quad* signifies bad or wicked in ancient Teutonic, and they affirm that the Slavonians or the Poles have merely translated the word, for *Zle* in their language has the same signification. But the opinion of Dobrowsky is more probable; the Slavonic colonists, who settled in Silesia during the sixth century, took the name of *Zlesy* or *Zlesaky*, which signifies the last, to distinguish themselves from the colonists who were already in possession of Bohemia, and whom they called *Czechy* or the first.

It cannot be doubted that Silesia was a Slavonic country in the sixth century, perhaps it was so from the time it began to be cultivated. But much knowledge cannot be obtained concerning it before the eleventh century; it was then called the *Gau* of *Zlesane*. It remained for a long time a province of Poland. When Boleslas the Third divided his states among his children in 1138, Uladeslas II., the eldest, obtained with the supreme authority over Poland, the countries of Cracow, Sieradia, Pomerania, and Silesia for his inheritance. Having attempted to deprive his brothers of their portion, he was driven from his dominions, and his brother, Boleslas IV. succeeded him on the throne. That king made over Silesia to Boleslas the Tall, Miecislav and Conrad, the three sons of Uladeslas.

The province then extended much farther to the north than it does at present, and it was divided by the three brothers into Upper, Central and Lower Silesia. Conrad

* Hofman's Statistical Tables.

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died in 1178, and Boleslas united and governed Lower and Central Silesia, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his brother Miecislus. At that time the name of Central Silesia fell into disuse, and the lower province became nearly twice as large as the upper.

The successors of Boleslas and Miecislus committed an error common to the princes of their age, that of giving appanages to their younger children. These appanages soon became separate states, and we are thus enabled to account for the great number of principalities of which the names still remain. Weakened by that policy, Silesia excited the ambition of John the Second, Duke of Bohemia, who conquered almost the whole country, at least fourteen Silesian dukes of the Piastian race submitted to him, and acknowledged themselves his vassals in 1327. But the dukes Schweidnitz and Jawer maintained their independence; and their resistance was facilitated by the position of their territory, which is defended by heights and the chain of the Sudetes. Charles the Fourth, emperor of Germany and king of Bohemia, obtained by right of his wife the whole of Silesia. Poland renounced by a solemn treaty its just claims to the sovereignty of the country, and it was added to the Bohemian crown by an act of the empire; from that period to the year 1742, the Silesians continued the allies, if not the vassals of Germany.

Submission
to Bohemia.

Several important changes had formerly taken place in the political constitution of Silesia. The sovereignty possessed by the dukes of the Piastian race fell rapidly into decay. The separate principalities formed parts of a single political body by the establishment of a sovereign court of princes in the year 1498. The possessions of different dukes, who died without heirs, became in the course of time vacant fiefs of the Bohemian crown. Such was the origin and history of these principalities; some of them, it is true, were given as fiefs to other princes, but the right of sovereignty was always vested in the kings of Bohemia.

Religious
persecution.

The most of the Silesians having embraced the reform-

ation of Luther or Calvin, suffered in consequence from the fanaticism and persecution of the Austro-Bohemian government. The victorious sword of Charles XII. compelled the emperor to adopt a more equitable policy; but not long afterwards, Silesia became, and has ever since continued independent of the house of Austria.

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Frederick II. of Prussia began his campaigns by invading Silesia, and he conquered, or rather took that country by surprise in the year 1740. It is admitted that his pretext was sufficiently plausible. As the crown of Bohemia had renounced not only the possession, but all its rights to Silesia, by the peace of Breslau, Berlin and other subsequent treaties, the kings of Prussia pretended that they had by that means become sovereign dukes of the country, and in their new character not subject to the emperor. To this claim it was justly replied, that Bohemia being an imperial state, could not of its own authority destroy the feudal tenure by which it was attached to Silesia, and the latter country through it, to the empire. The question was rendered more intricate, for one party considered Bohemia feudal only as to the electoral dignity, but as a kingdom, free and independent of Germany. According to the last supposition, Bohemia might at any time have renounced its sovereignty over Silesia. The Germans argued that Silesia was a part of the empire, the Prussians considered it a separate state. The dispute has been abruptly decided by the present king of Prussia, who has included Silesia among his states that form part of the Germanic confederation.

Prussian
Conquest.

That part of Silesia on the east of the Oder, is a Soil very large plain, slightly undulated by hills; it descends gradually from north to south, and differs in no respect from the plains in Poland. But in the western districts, the Mountains land is more unequal, and that portion of Silesia is bounded by high mountainous chains. The most elevated of these chains is the *Riesengebirge*, or *Giants' mountains*, which extend from the south of the town of Hirschberg to

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Trautenau and Friedland. Their direction is from the north-west to the south-east.

The Iser-Kamm extends on the north of that central and principal chain, from the north-west of Hirschberg to Marklissa in Lusatia. The Wohlische-Kamm are situated on the south-west of the Iser-Kamm, or crest of the Iser, and their direction is nearly from east to west. These two chains meet at the Erzgebirge in Saxony, at no great distance from the Giants' mountains. The heights in the county of Glatz, which are known by the name of the Eulen-Gebirge, or Owls' mountains, rise on the south of the central chain. The direction of these mountains, according to the maps, appears to be from north to south; but they consist of three chains parallel to each other, and to the Riesengebirge, and their direction is from north-west to south-east. Several groups on the east of Glatz are situated nearer the plains. The Zobten or the most northern of these groups, is detached from the rest. The *Schneberge* or snowy mountains extend from the south-east of the county of Glatz into Moravia and Austrian Silesia. These mountains form the northern part of the Gesenker-Gebirge, that lofty ridge, which stretching across Moravia and Austrian Silesia, joins the Carpathians.

Meadows
and marsh-
es.

Humid meadows and marshes are situated between these chains; the *White Meadow* on the sides of the Riesen-Gebirge, is perhaps the largest; the meadow of the Iser is not much smaller, and the *Seefeldler*, an extensive heath in the district of Glatz, is about three thousand feet above the level of the sea.

Rocks.
Granite.

The Baron de Buch, a distinguished German geologist, has examined the Reisen-Gebirge. Granite abounds, the steep and detached heights, of which the form may be compared to a hemisphere, are almost wholly composed of fine grained granite. Mica is observed on the surface, but very little is found at any depth below it. The masses formed by crystallizations prove apparently that quartz, the primitive base of granite, has a greater affinity to feldspar than to mica. It is not difficult to follow the transi-

tion from rocks almost wholly silicious, and from granite slightly mixed with mica, to argillaceous rocks, or argillaceous schistus, amphibole and aluminous schistus; for they are separated by micaceous schistus and gneiss, abounding with mica. The formation of the granite is more or less ancient according to the quantity of mica contained in it, and quartz is commonly found in more abundance, as the mica diminishes.

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The rocks of a crystalline texture are in reality nothing more than primitive granite; besides they may be easily distinguished from the recomposed granite, which is observed between Reichenstein and Warta, for although that sort may be nearly as fine in the grain, it contains a great quantity of mica, and rests on a bed of micaceous schistus.

Gneiss or foliated granite is not observed at a great height on the Giants' mountains; it is there mostly separated from the micaceous schistus by mica, which forms rarely contiguous masses. Selenite is enclosed in the rocks in the neighbourhood of Bukersdorf. The gneiss rises much higher in the Eulen-Gebirge, and its strata are more extensive. No great deposits of calcareous rocks are found in these mountains, but metals have been at different times discovered.

Micaceous schistus is one of the most common rocks on the southern sides of the Riesen-Gebirge. It appears to have been deposited by streams or currents proceeding from the south; and it passes into argillaceous, amphibolic and other sorts of schistus. There are besides strata of limestone, and in some places of serpentine, the latter seems to be the most ancient of the calcareous rocks. Micaceous schistus is contained among the granite in many parts of Upper Silesia, but none has been observed in the gneiss. The micaceous schistus in Lower Silesia, near the sources of the Queis, at Freidberg, Gicheren and Querbach, is intersected in many places by metallic veins. *Zinnstein* or oxide of tin is diffused in all the rocks, and garnets are found embedded in sparkling cobalt. There is between Rudelstadt and Janowitz, a bed of garnets in amphibolic

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schistus, mixed with actinotes and calcareous spar. The mine of Einigkeit near Kupferberg, is worked in a stratum, which consists chiefly of asbestos-shaped actinote, copper and other sorts of pyrites.

The porphyry in Silesia rests generally on micaceous schistus, and serves as a support for argillaceous schistus. It is only in the principality of Schweidnitz that the traveller observes isolated cones of porphyry rising in the midst of stratified mountains. The Raben-Gebirge is a high and steep hill composed of porphyry, it is situated near Liebau, in the direction of Landshut. Another mass of the same kind, and perhaps still larger, encompasses the northern and eastern sides of Friedland. Round masses of porphyry are not uncommon in the stratified valleys of Schmiedsdorf, and their surface is partly covered with crystals of quartz. Lamina or plates of barytes-spath rise from the interior of the porphyry, and sandstone in some places rests above it. The Wild-Gebirg is divided near Schonau in the principality of Jauer, into thin and perpendicular columns.

Serpentine. Besides the ancient serpentine, there is another sort, which is found in Silesia, it appears to be of a more recent formation, probably of the same date as the argillaceous schistus, at least it abounds in places where one might expect to find that schistus, and in others where the schistus is very common, it is seldom observed. In many places, particularly at Zobten, (an almost detached promontory of the Riesen-Gebirge,) the primitive rock, that is called *grunstein*, rests on a base of serpentine. It might be difficult to account for the appearance of the chrysoprasus and the opal in the vicinity of Kosemutz.

Conglomerates.

Numerous rocks fallen into decay, or destroyed by some cause, form what the disciples of Werner call conglomerates. Coal is generally found below them, and those in the principality of Schweidnitz are contiguous to the bases of lofty mountains. There are many primitive mountains in the western part of Silesia, but none that are stratified or of recent formation. A conglomerate is never formed by

deposits brought from a distance, the rocks from which it has been detached, are always found in the neighbouring mountains. Thus in Upper Silesia, where there are no primitive mountains, there are none of these remains. BOOK
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It is worth while to remark that the impressions of plants are often observed in the midst of the decayed rocks; these plants, though now unknown, were obviously at one time indigenous to the climate.

The coal in Upper Silesia is in many places covered with iron in a state of oxidation, and it rests on a bed of bituminous wood, very friable and apparently of a lamellated texture. Stratified
limestone.

There appears to be only one formation of stratified limestone in Silesia, and it is of the same kind as the one which rises to an immense height in the eastern Alps; it is the compact gray limestone that is common in many parts of Lower Silesia. It alternates with schistous argil, in which copper is contained. The limestone in Upper Silesia is covered with strata of galena, and above the galena is another calcareous rock finely grained and without petrifications; it is mixed with calcareous spath, calamine and brown hæmatites. It is covered in the neighbourhood of Tarnowitz with a bluish argil and also with an oxide of iron, which in some places serves as a support, and in others as a covering for calaminar stone.

A very narrow and steep chain near Habelschwerdt Sandstone. in the county of Glatz, consists of sandstone, for the most part of an uniform texture; the layers are united by a clayey cement. At a greater distance from the primitive mountains, the argillaceous cement is not observed in the rocks, and it is not improbable that the latest formations of sandstone are to be found near the immense masses of sand on the right side of the Oder.

The basalts in Silesia form the scattered and remote limits of the great basaltic range in Bohemia. Buchberg in the neighbourhood of Landshut is one of the highest basaltic hills in the province, but the summit is composed of stratified grunstein, which towers above the basalt. At no

BOOK great distance from one of the tops of the Giant's moun-
CXVII. tain, a mass of basalt has been observed, which appears to be fixed in the granite. The basalt near Krobsdorf is covered in many places with micaceous schistus, and it is in every respect similar to the most modern basalt in different countries of Europe.

Useful pro- Silesia is from the number of its useful productions, one
ductions. of the most wealthy provinces. Besides slate, mill-stones, fuller's earth and different kinds of clay, we might mention the marble near Kaufungen, the serpentine near mount Zobten, and in the circle of Frankenstein, the porphyry near Schenau, the rock crystal at Prieborn, Krummendorf and Mummelgrube, the jaspers, corneli-ans, onyxes and agates of Bunzlow, and lastly, a particular sort of chrysophrasus, which is found in the vicinity of Grache and Kosewitz.^b

The German geographers affirm that Silesia is wholly unprovided with salt ;^c but M. Heinitz, who from his official capacity must have had good means of ascertaining the fact, assures us that the salt springs in Upper Silesia might afford a very considerable supply, and that there is reason to believe that rock salt might be found at the depth of a hundred feet ; hitherto however, his expectations have not been realized.

Coal. Silesia is well supplied with peat and coal ; it appears indeed that the annual produce of forty-three coal pits is not less than fifty thousand chaldrons. The same fossil abounds in the principalities of Schweidnitz and Neisse, in the county of Glatz, and in most parts of Upper Silesia. The best kinds of peat are obtained from the plains on the banks of the Oder. The alum, vitriol and calamine of Upper Silesia, and the arsenic of Reichenstein are worked with advantage ; but the gold which is mixed with the arsenic, was found in so small quantities that the dangerous operation of extracting it, has been discontinued. The work-

^b Heinitz's Account of the Mineral Productions of the Prussian Monarchy.

^c Gaspari.

ing of the tin mines near Giehren has likewise been given up, although it is affirmed that at a very early period, they yielded every year, nearly three hundred quintals. The quantity of cobalt which is annually obtained is not less than thirty-eight thousand quintals.

The copper mines of Rudelstadt furnish a supply of Copper. about eight hundred and fifty quintals; the produce of the others has not been determined. There is an extensive and valuable lead mine in which silver is contained, in the neighbourhood of Tarnowitz in Upper Silesia. It is supposed that in ancient times the mine yielded about fifteen or sixteen thousand quintals of lead, and between three or four thousand marks of silver. It has been affirmed that the annual produce of the mine is at present greater. M. Heinitz informs us that the strata of lead cover a surface of eleven square leagues, but his calculations appear to be too great. The iron mines are the most numerous and important of Iron. any in Silesia. The ore is not of a rich quality, for not more than twenty-four pounds of iron are obtained from the quintal. A mine of spathic iron has been discovered in the neighbourhood of a royal foundry at Malapane, and the metal is easily converted into steel. The iron of Tarnowitz is of a good quality, and that from a mine of magnetic iron ore near Schmiedelberg in Lower Silesia, is much used in cutlery. Other mines are situated in the direction of Warthenberg and Sprottan. The royal iron mines furnish employment to three thousand six hundred and fifty seven workmen; but the value of the raw produce does not amount to much more than a million of crowns. The produce of the mines belonging to individuals has not as yet been ascertained.

It has been supposed that there was at one time much silver in Silesia; a small portion however is only at present found in the lead mines at Tarnowitz, Riechenstein, and Silberberg, even in the last place the working of silver has been given up. The existence of thin plates and grains of gold among the beds of quartz and sand near Goldberg is proved by well authenticated facts. It is also proved that

Gold and
Silver.

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in 1624, four ounces of gold were obtained from the washing of seven quintals and a half of sand and earth. The same metal has been found in other parts of the country, but in so small quantities as not to indemnify the expense of labour. On the whole, the metallic ores in Silesia, which are almost all situated on the side of Germany, or on the left of the Oder, are not very valuable, but they afford employment to the labouring classes, and supply partly the wants of the country.

**Corn.
Fruit.**

The productions of the vegetable kingdom are more important, but it is certain that the crops in Silesia are inadequate for the numerous population, and a considerable importation is often indispensable. The quantity of grain imported into the province from Poland and Austria during six successive years, may be seen by the following table.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.
	Quarters.	Quarters.
1819	1289	83,053
1820	2041	32,636
1821	2580	24,279
1822	4079	60,491
1823	6913	36,216
1824	7329	13,455 ^d

All the ordinary kinds of wheat in the countries in the north of Europe, Turkey corn, spelt, millet, and buck wheat are cultivated in different parts of Silesia. The potato is a substitute for wheat in the mountainous districts. The cultivation of lentils, peas and other leguminous plants, has been of late years improved and extended. Fruit succeeds best in the neighbourhood of Grunberg and Nieder-Beuthen. The inhabitants continue to labour their vineyards, although the wine is very ordinary, according

^d Jacob's First Report, Appendix, No. 20.

to Busching, it improves by keeping, but Gaspari affirms it to be little better than vinegar. BOOK
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Lint and hemp are the most valuable vegetable productions in Silesia; they succeed in most parts of the country, but the quantity raised is not sufficient for the numerous manufactories. The culture of lint is most flourishing in the neighbourhood of Neisse, Oels, Trebnitz, Sagan and Wartenberg; and the seed is imported every year from Livonia and other Russian provinces. Thread is also made from felwort, a plant of which the cultivation is rapidly increasing. The average crop of madder is supposed to amount to fifty or sixty thousand *steins*, and a considerable portion of it is exported.^e Weld or *Aster Atticus*, a plant that yields a yellow dye, is equally abundant; but it may excite surprise that the culture of saffron is neglected. As to the culture of tobacco, it cannot be supposed to be widely diffused in a country in which other crops are much more profitable. The silk raised in Silesia is too inconsiderable to be of much value; it appears from a statistical account that the number of mulberry trees throughout the country in 1794 was four hundred and eighty thousand, but the quantity of pure silk did not exceed four hundred and ninety three pounds, while that of raw silk was little more than a hundred and thirty. It is likely indeed that the breeding of silk worms may be soon discontinued.

The wealth of Upper Silesia consists chiefly in its timber. The principality of Oppeln is almost one continued forest. The Oder flows through woods of thick and lofty oaks. In Lower Silesia, the mountains on one side and the extensive sandy plains on the other are covered with trees. The same remark is applicable to the neighbouring districts in Poland, but the want of wood is apparent in the country between Lusatia and the Oder. The most common trees are the oak, the pine, the pinaster and the fir; to these may be added the larch, which abounds in the

^e The stein or German stone is equivalent to twenty-three English pounds.

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principality of Jagerndorf, and from which turpentine is extracted. The value of the wood, potashes, tar, rosin, lamp black and other articles obtained from the timber, and exported every year, is not supposed to be less than one hundred thousand pounds.

Wool.

The Silesian wool, which in its original state was of a very good quality, has been improved by the introduction of Spanish sheep. The flocks are shorn twice a-year, and the summer's wool is considered the most valuable. The annual produce varies from a hundred and sixty to a hundred and eighty thousand steins, or from three millions five hundred thousand to four millions of pounds; but that quantity, great as it is, is not nearly enough for the demand of the woollen manufacturers in the country. The number of sheep throughout Silesia is upwards of two millions three hundred thousand. Many cows are not kept, not more than are sufficient to furnish milk and cheese for domestic purposes; in some districts indeed, where horses and oxen are very rare, cows are used in labouring the land. The people on the mountains keep a great many goats, and if it be true, as has been affirmed, that two she-goats give as much milk as a cow, these animals must find excellent pasturage. The Silesian horses are small and of little value, the most of them were originally imported from Lithuania and Poland. It is true that the mountaineers on the side of Bohemia possess a stronger sort, but it is by no means common in the rest of the country. Game is rare or abundant according as the districts are well or ill wooded. The lynx is one of the wild animals that is sometimes seen on the mountains; the beaver was formerly more common, it has now become rare; and the bear avoiding the habitations of man, has migrated to the solitudes in Poland. * The fishings are found to be profitable; the salmon, the sturgeon, of which the length is sometimes from twelve to fourteen feet, the sparus, the glanis that weighs from forty to fifty pounds, are often taken in the Oder. The lamprey and the loach are not

Fish.

uncommon, and numerous marshes or lakes abound with pike, murenæ and trouts. BOOK
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The principal industry of Silesia is concentrated in the numerous and large villages in the neighbourhood of Hirschberg; it consists in the manufactory of cloth, wool, linen stuffs, coarse and fine linen, and other articles. The manufactured exports in 1803 exceeded in value 6,691,216 Prussian crowns. Cloth to the amount of 2,669,609 crowns was exported in the following year, and the different cotton stuffs were not much less than 600,000. The linen goods were exported to Spain, and from Cadiz to the former Spanish colonies in South America; but that outlet was destroyed by the submission of the continent to the prohibitions imposed by Napoleon. The same trade has not since been recovered; the markets are now supplied by Great Britain and Ireland. The Silesian exports in 1805 were calculated to amount to 10,934,519 crowns, and these exports were manufactured from the produce of the country, or 7,020,693 crowns were derived from the animal, and 3,913,862 from the vegetable kingdom. The exports made of foreign materials were equal to 984,777 crowns, so that the total exportation amounted nearly to twelve millions of crowns. The imports into Silesia during the same year, were oxen, horses, pigs, grain, lint, hemp and other articles from Moldavia, Russia and Prussia to the amount of two millions of crowns; nearly a million in wine, iron, copper and thread from Austria, a great quantity of rock salt from Galicia, and about two or three millions in wines, silk and colonial produce from Hamburgh, Berlin, Stettin and Dantzic. Thus the total importation in 1805 was not greater than eleven millions of crowns, so that there remained a balance of one million in favour of the province.^f If to these sums, that which was derived in 1805 from the transit trade on the conveyance of goods, be added, the whole might amount to twenty-six millions of crowns; but it is certain that all the branches of ex-

^f King.

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portation and importation have not remained in their ancient channels. The wants of the province are the same, its resources, it is probable, have not regained their former level. The prohibitory system maintained by Russia, the mutual restraints that the Russian and Austrian custom houses oppose to each other, fetter the commerce of Silesia, which, had it been left to its natural liberty, might have at present been much more extensive than at any former period. The transit trade has constantly declined since the year 1766, when Frederick the Great established his custom houses, and in this respect Silesia has lost much more than it has gained by its separation from Austria.⁶ As it is now united under the same sceptre with the great dutchy of Posen, and as the communication between Breslau and Dantzic is direct, these circumstances have tended to increase its foreign trade.

Climate.

All the advantages which Silesia possesses from its geographical position, are more or less counterbalanced by its climate. The air, it is true, is in many parts salubrious, but the southern districts, from the thick forests and the elevation of the soil, are exposed to long and severe winters. The water is good in the mountainous districts towards Bohemia, but the great disadvantage of the climate arises from snowy winters and rainy autumns. The climate is milder in the northern part of the country, but the lakes and marshes infect the air in several places and render it unwholesome, particularly along the Polish frontier, where the inhabitants suffer much from the want of good water.

Inhabitants.

The Silesians may be divided into separate classes both as to their origin and religion. The most of the inhabitants speak at present the German language, and many of them are descended from colonists that left Franconia and the

Germans.

Rhine. The Germans, to the number of 1,700,000, are distinguished from the rest of the population by their industrious habits, their knowledge and religious tolerance;

⁶ Norwan's *Deutschland*, p. 289.

the latter virtue is often accompanied with genuine piety. Zealous defenders of their country's rights, they resisted Napoleon after the whole of Prussia was subdued. Among the celebrated men born in Silesia, are mentioned Wolfe the mathematician, Garve the moralist, and Opitz the founder of modern German poetry. A small portion of Upper ^{Wendes.} Wendes Lusatia has been added to the province; and it is supposed that the number of inhabitants sprung from the Wendes is not less than twenty-two or perhaps twenty-four thousand; they retain their ancient Slavonic dialect. The most numerous branch of the Slavonic race is that which forms the rural population of Upper Silesia. Settled at a very ^{Slavonians.} Slavonians early period in the country, their resemblance to the Poles and Moravians is still apparent both in their features and their dialect. The Germans call them the *Wasser-Polaken* or Poles that inhabit a marshy country, their number is upwards of four hundred and fifty thousand. Their language, in common with the Latin, was used in judicial proceedings and in the public acts until the year 1352, when the German was introduced into the different tribunals. Participating little in the advantages of German civilization, separated from the rest of the Poles, they have not hitherto made much progress in agriculture or the arts. Their cottages proclaim their poverty, they cover themselves with sheep skins, take journeys during winter on long and light wooden skates, like the Norwegians, Laplanders and inhabitants of Carniola.^h

As to the religion of the inhabitants, Silesia contains ^{Religion.} Religion about eleven or twelve hundred thousand evangelical Lutherans, who reside chiefly in the districts in the neighbourhood of Breslau, and in the northern part of the province. The number of Catholics is not supposed to be greater than nine hundred thousand, they are mostly settled in Upper Silesia, and on the mountains in the direction of Bohemia. The reformists, Mennonites, Hussites or ancient Moravian brothers, and the Herrenhutians or modern

^h Busching. 1

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Causes for
the decrease
of the Ca-
tholics.

Moravian brothers enjoy religious liberty: It cannot be denied that the number of Catholics has diminished, and still continues to diminish; but while the Lutherans account for it by the progress of civilization, and the justice of the Prussian government, which permitted the full exercise of their religion to many concealed and oppressed protestants, the Catholics deplore the successive reductions in the revenues of their regular and secular clergy, revenues which were formerly immense, and which are still very considerable. It is true that out of twenty abbeys, seventy-three monasteries, and eighteen convents for women, six only remain, and the greater part of the land and possessions attached to them, is at present secularized. But, in the first place, these measures were not put into execution until the year 1810, and half a century before that period, the Catholics were decreasing in number; besides the same measures were extended to the Lutheran convents. Not a single church has been taken away from the Catholics, and whilst the evangelists have only six hundred and twenty-five churches, the Catholics are in possession of one thousand three hundred and seventy-eight; and among these are several, which the Catholics of a former period took by force from the Protestants. The theological colleges are free to all, and the Catholic faculty of the university of Breslau is better endowed than the Lutheran. The seminaries that were improved by the Abbé Filberger, are still under the direction of priests selected from the Jesuits. The Catholics have therefore little cause of complaint. It is not denied that the individual, who unites the titles of Bishop of Breslau, Prince of Neisse, and Duke of Grotkan, possesses no longer a hundred and sixty-three castles, and domains of which the rental was estimated at two millions of crowns; but his revenue is still great, and he may console himself by reflecting on the first bishops, the founders in the year 996 of the see at Szmogrow, where, according to authentic documents, they taught schools, were married, and lived like burgesses. It was during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, that the bishoprick, the chief town of which was trans-

ferred to Pitschen in 1041, and to Breslau in 1052, acquired its immense wealth. How happens it then that the poor and oppressed Catholics of Ireland remain faithful to their worship, while the rich and protected Catholics in Silesia are daily decreasing in number ?

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The Silesian nobility possess three thousand five hundred and four landed estates, that were valued at a hundred and fifty millions of crowns at the time when the establishment of a provincial credit bank, lessened the inconvenience to which the proprietors were exposed from the frequent variations in the price of corn. The dukes, the great and petty barons retain many prerogatives according to the new organization of the provincial states. The peasants, who were subject to a sort of vassalage, which was more oppressive in Upper Silesia than in any other part of the country, were declared free in 1810. They may acquire land, but the nobles are entitled to exact from them the *landimies* or a per centage on their succession to heritable property, *robotte* or statute labour, and many other services of a like nature. The privileges of the burgesses under the Austrian government were very different in different towns. The inhabitants of Breslau enjoyed immunities almost equal to those in a republic; the citizens of a few immediate towns were the members of a separate and subordinate council; but these distinctions were abolished after the Prussian conquest, and the different burgesses throughout Silesia are more impartially represented.

Breslau or the capital of the province, was in early times called Wroclaw by the Silesians.ⁱ The same ancient city was burned by the Mongol Tartars in the year 1241. Although it is situated on the Oder and in a plain, it is five hundred feet above the level of the Baltic sea. The country in the neighbourhood is well cultivated, and very fruitful; it is covered with gardens, fruit trees and madder plantations. Public walks and country houses now occupy the site of the former vast and useless fortifications.

ⁱ Wroclaw was pronounced as if it had been written Wratslaw.

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The streets are for the most part narrow, but the appearance of the town is imposing from the number of its public buildings; the finest are the cathedral, an edifice of Gothic architecture, the arrow of St. Elizabeth, the ancient convent of the Augustines, the palace of Schœnborn, the arsenal, the treasury, and the mint. Thus Breslau has some claims to its official title of third capital of the monarchy. The population which in the year 1817, amounted to seventy-eight thousand, including the garrison, exceeds at present eighty-two thousand individuals, they consist of about fifty-eight thousand Protestants, eighteen thousand five hundred Catholics, and five thousand five hundred Jews. One or two literary and philosophical societies, fourteen public libraries, of which the one belonging to the university contains one hundred thousand volumes, a museum, an observatory, a school of anatomy, five collections of medals, pictures and antiquities, a botanical garden, and several hospitals may be mentioned among the public and useful institutions in the town. As the centre of Silesian commerce, it is said that an exportation amounting to seventeen millions of florins, and an importation not much inferior to it, circulated within its walls in 1805; but these calculations are in all probability exaggerated. The great fairs, at which the wool of Silesia and the oxen of the Ukraine and Moldavia are sold, bring together a great many strangers from very distant countries. Breslau carries on a trade in leather, spirits, glass, mirrors, white and printed linen, cloth, silk, tobacco and other articles; it has besides its sugar works, paper mills and alum manufactories.

The other remarkable places in the government of Breslau are not numerous on the Polish side, or on the eastern bank of the Oder. Namslau is the metropolis of a district, in which the wool is supposed to be the best in Silesia. Although the population of Oels is not greater than five thousand souls, there are a public library, a museum of natural history, a gymnasium and a theatre in the town. It is the capital of a mediate principality belonging to the

dukes of Brunswick, of which the revenue is little more than one hundred and fifty thousand florins. The district of Trebnitz, from its forests of birch trees, has been called by the inhabitants the country of brooms. The baronies of Trachenberg and Militsch are fruitful and well cultivated, but a considerable portion of the land is covered with marshes, that may be compared to lakes. The country in the neighbourhood of Neuschloss is planted with vineyards. The small town of Wohlau is situated in a marshy district, and its inhabitants are mostly employed in manufacturing damask.

The province has been enlarged on the German side by the addition of Reichenbach, and several places worthy of notice are situated in that part of the country. Brieg on the Oder is about five hundred feet above the level of the sea; though well fortified, it is not supposed to be tenable in the event of a siege. The chief wealth of its ten thousand inhabitants consists in their linen manufactures. The streets are straight, the neighbouring country is agreeable, and the principal public buildings are an university with a good library, several hospitals and a lunatic asylum. The inhabitants of the principality met formerly every year at a feast given by their dukes under the shade of a lofty and ancient oak in the neighbourhood of Scheidewitz. A colony of Bohemian Hussites in Strehlen and three neighbouring villages, speak their ancient dialect, and adhere to their evangelical worship, which preceded the reformation of Luther. The small town of Ohlau is situated on a river of the same name; the inhabitants are industrious and wealthy, they carry on a trade in tobacco, cloth and paper.

Schweidnitz or the principal town in the mountainous districts is a place of considerable trade, and contains a population of ten thousand souls. It was formerly a strong fortress, but its fortifications were levelled with the ground by order of Napoleon, in 1807. It has since that period gained in industry more than what it lost in military importance. It is sometimes called the second capital of Si-

Towns in
the mountainous districts.

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lesia, but it is not a great many years since it contained only six thousand inhabitants. The town is watered by the Weistritz, which throws itself into the Oder; its streets are broad, and some of the squares are large, and adorned with well built houses. The townhouse and the Catholic church, of which the steeple is the highest in Silesia, are the finest public buildings. The situation of Schweidnitz, in the middle of a fertile country, is favourable for its commerce, which consists chiefly in grain, wool, tobacco, cloth and leather. The town boasts of having given birth to Mary Cunitz, one of the most celebrated women of the seventeenth century; she studied the exact sciences with success, and published in 1642, under the title of *Urania propitia*, astronomical tables which have since that period been several times reprinted.

Liegnitz is the only town of any importance, between the heights and the Katzbach. It is situated on the banks of that small river, which at the distance of some leagues onwards unites with the Oder.

**Ancient
inhabitants.**

It is unnecessary to examine minutely whether Liegnitz, of which the Latin name is Lignicium, was founded by the Ligii, Lugii or Logiones, a people of ancient Germany, mentioned by Tacitus.^k Such an opinion is indeed highly improbable, at least there is the testimony of the same historian for believing that the Ligii never built any towns. But it is urged in proof of the ancient origin of Liegnitz that a few urns or vases apparently of a very remote antiquity, have been at different times discovered in the neighbourhood. These monuments however are by no means uncommon in many parts of Silesia; and although there may be some doubt as to the purposes for which they were deposited, it is certain that they do not always indicate the sites of ancient towns. It is more likely that they were used as tombs, for the ancient inhabitants paid great respect to the dead, and like the Romans and other nations of ancient Europe, burned the body and pre-

^k De Moribus Germanorum, § 43. Annals, Book XIV. chap. xxix.

served the ashes. It is known besides that Leignitz, a town at present of nearly 9600 inhabitants, was only a village before Boleslas fortified and encompassed it with walls in the year 1175.¹ Many suppose its castle to be the finest in Silesia; trees grow on its ramparts, public walks have been made in the vicinity, and the adjoining country is fruitful and well wooded. The large square, the cathedral that was founded by Wenceslas in 1348, the townhouse, and the arsenal, in which a fine collection of ancient armour is preserved, are admired by strangers. The cloth manufactories are more important than any others in the town. The industrious gardeners in the neighbouring country have created a lucrative branch of trade; it is said that they receive annually for their fruit and vegetables, (a great part of which is exported,) a sum little less than 100,000 *reichsthalers* or L.15,416. BOOK
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The road between Leignitz and Glogau crosses the field of battle on which the Austrians were defeated by Frederick the Great in 1760. The latter town, which was taken by the French in 1807, is an important fortress, it was called Great Glogau by the Silesians, to distinguish it from a small town of the same name in Upper Silesia. The town is on the whole well built, although neither its churches nor other public buildings are in any way remarkable. It is watered by the Oder, and situated in the midst of a fertile plain. The industry of the inhabitants secures them against the hardships of poverty; they have been improved by the blessings of peace; and the population, which has rapidly increased, is at present upwards of eleven thousand souls. Grunberg, the last town of any importance towards the northern extremity of Silesia, is surrounded by vineyards, the grapes, though plentiful, are of an inferior quality. It contains a greater population than eight thousand souls. The small and picturesque town of Sagan is built near the confluence of the Bober and the Queis; its population amounts to five thou-

¹ *Topographia Silesiae* by Zeiler, p. 158.

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sand souls, it has different manufactories and among others, one of porcelain. Buntzlau, which contains 5000 souls, is likewise situated on the banks of the Bober, but at a greater distance from its junction with the Queis, and near the eastern side of the Giant's mountains. It possesses a national school and a royal hospital; the chief trade of the place has consisted for a long period in stone and earthen ware. Hirschberg, another town in the same part of the country is only remarkable for its cloth manufactories; it contains 6500 inhabitants. Lauban or Lubau is a town nearly of the same population, and it carries on the same sort of trade. Muska or Muskau on the Neisse is less important from the number of its inhabitants, which is not more than 1500, than from its alum works and different manufactories. It is perhaps one of the smallest towns in Europe, in which there are a large library and a gallery of paintings. Goerlitz or Goertzlitz is situated on the banks of the same river, and contains about nine thousand inhabitants. The cloth manufactured at Goerlitz was supposed to be finer than any in Silesia. The cathedral is worthy of notice on account of its organ, and a chapel cut in the rock, from which a bell is appended of very large dimensions. The museum belonging to a scientific society has been considered valuable, but the neighbourhood of the town is most likely to gratify strangers.

**Mount
Landscrone.**

Mount Landscrone, of which the name signifies the *crown of the country*, is not more than a mile and a half to the west of Goerlitz. The view from it in clear weather extends over a horizon of seventy miles. One may observe the different thermal and medicinal springs to which invalids repair from every part of Silesia. On one side are the celebrated baths of Liebverda, at a greater distance the ferruginous springs of Flinsberg; on the left the village of Markersdorf, near which Marshal Duroc was killed on the 23d of May 1813, at the battle of Reichenbach, by the same cannon ball that destroyed General Kirgener, and wounded mortally General Bruyere. Napoleon gave a considerable sum to the curate of the village to lay out in

erecting a monument to the memory of the Marshal, but the Prince of Reprin applied the money to a different purpose.

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Having thus given a short account of the province of Silesia; it remains for us to describe another which is still more important, it is the centre of a state that during a century has had a considerable share in the events that have agitated Europe; in short, the capital of all the Prussian dominions is situated in the middle of this province. Brandenburg is formed by a part of the old Mark of the same name, which was so called from the town of Brandenburg, by part of the circles of Wittemberg and Meissen, by the principality of Querfurt, and lastly by a small portion of Silesia. It is limited on the south-east by the last province, on the east by Pomerania and the great dutchy of Mecklenburg, on the west by Saxony, from which it is partly separated by the Elbe, and on the south-west by the principality of Anhalt-Des-sau. Its greatest breadth is about sixty leagues from north to south, and about fifty-five from west to east; its superficial extent is not less than 2080 square leagues, or 13,000 square miles. The inhabitants amount to 1,355,160, and they are composed of Germans, Swiss and the descendants of French emigrants. The population is distributed in 141 towns, 21 burghs and 3241 villages. The number of inhabitants for every square league is not more than 642, or 107 for every square mile. The province therefore in proportion to its size is much less populous than Silesia, which for every square league contains 739 inhabitants.

Branden-
burg.
Position.
Limits.

The ancient people that inhabited Brandenburg, were according to Tacitus, the Lombards, (Longobardi,) the Burgundians, (Burgundiones) the Semnons (Semnones), who styled themselves the bravest and most noble of the Suevi, and lastly the Guttons or Guttones, who formed a part of the Vandals. These people, who were probably defeated by the Venedi or Vendes about the end of the fourth, or beginning of the fifth century, invaded different

Ancient in-
habitant.

BOOK provinces of the Roman Empire, and the Vendes occupied
CXVII. the country which now forms Brandenburg. They were soon subdivided into different small tribes according to the portions of the country which they inhabited; thus mention is made of the *Lutitzi*, the *Wilzi*, the *Walutabi* and the *Havelli*.

Origin of
 the Mar-
 gnavites.

Albert surnamed the Bear, took from these people the town of Brandenburg in 1133, and received in 1150 from the emperor Conrad the Third, the title of elector and margrave. The Mark of Brandenburg was then almost covered with fens and woods; the prince undertook to drain the land; he built towns that were soon afterwards peopled by a numerous colony of Germans, who had settled in Holland, but were obliged in consequence of an inundation to quit their country. He repopled also several parts of Brandenburg, which the devastations committed by the Swedes and Danes had rendered desert. Christianity was spread and established in the country during the reign of the same prince; he built churches, founded monasteries, endowed colleges, and laboured to civilize and enlighten his barbarous subjects. Albert was indeed the true founder of the margraviate of Brandenburg, for before his time the different margraves were appointed during life by the emperors, and he was the first to whom it was erected into a fief. The principality passed from several branches of his family, which became successively extinct, and fell into the hands of Sigismond king of Hungary. Not long afterwards Sigismond was elected emperor by the interest and good offices of Frederick, count of Hohenzollern and burgrave of Murberg. But the emperor being lavish of his treasures, and despising economy, a virtue not less useful to sovereigns than to private persons, borrowed considerable sums from Frederick, mortgaged the new Mark and the greater portion of Brandenburg. Compelled anew to borrow money from the burgrave of Murberg, he ceded to him in 1411, the state of Brandenburg, as an hereditary fief with the privileges of the electoral

dignity for the sum of 150,000 gold florins,^m which together with what he had received at different periods, made the whole of the purchase money amount to 400,000 gold florins, an immense sum at the time in which it was given, and from which some notion may be formed of the wealth, enterprise, and economy of Frederick. If Sigismund maintained the imperial throne, it was owing to the valour, prudence and influence which the same able prince acquired in the Germanic confederation. He was the chief of that electoral family, from which are sprung several princes not inferior to him in decision, possessing the same facility in contriving resources, of which he himself gave so many proofs; in a word he was the ancestor of Frederick the Great, whose valour and great qualities are so well known as to render any mention of them unnecessary.

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Having thus explained the origin of the principality of Brandenburg, which together with Pomerania, forms at present one of the seven great military divisions of Prussia, comprehends two governments, of which the capitals are Potsdam and Frankfort, and is subdivided into thirty-two circles; we shall make some remarks on the nature of the soil, climate and principal productions.

The land in Brandenburg is low and in general sandy. Soil. Its inclination is so inconsiderable that a great many marshes and small lakes are formed by the inundations of rivers. The Prussian government has been thus enabled from the nature of the country to form a number of canals, which by opening communications between the rivers, facilitate inland commerce. The Spree is united to the Oder by the canal of Frederick William, and the Havel communicates with the same river by the canal of Fienow. Besides these important canals, several others may be mentioned, as those of the Oder, Fehrbellin, Storkow, Ruppiner and Templin, so called from the different towns through which they pass, or from the principal rivers by which their waters are supplied.

^m Bucholz, tome II. page 57.

**BOOK
CXVII.****Lakes.**

It is unnecessary to enumerate all the lakes, that are situated in the country, it may be sufficient to mention some of the most extensive. The Schweißung near Beeskow is about six miles in length; the Spree passes through it. The Scharmützel is upwards of three miles in length, it is the largest of any in the neighbourhood of Storkow. The Soldin and the Müggel are situated near the burg of Coepnick; the Beetz and the Breitling are not far from the town of Brandenburg; the Werbellin near Jouchimathal, is upwards of a league in length, and the lake of Ruppın is more than two and a half.

Agriculture.

The sandy soil of Brandenburg is favourable to vegetation; the country abounds in wood, but the forests do not resemble those in the north. The most common trees are the fir and the pine, the oak, the beech and the ash. A great portion of the timber is exported and used in building ships.

Corn.

The quantity of corn raised in the country, is not very great, the soil is unproductive, and more is effected by art than by nature. The husbandmen are industrious, and since the encouragement given to agriculture by Frederick the Great, uncultivated lands have been covered with harvests, thick forests changed into rich meadows, many unwholesome marshes drained, and in consequence, the land throughout the province has risen in value. The products of the soil are hemp, lint, tobacco, hops, grain and several plants used for dying in the different manufactories. The finest lint and hemp, the best millet and buckwheat in the province are raised on the lands in the neighbourhood of Priegnitz, Bezekow and Teltow. Different vegetables thrive in most places, and one sort, a species of small turnip introduced by the French emigrants that fled from the persecution occasioned by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, has thriven so well that it is now an article of considerable exportation. Beet, another very valuable plant, is cultivated in the neighbourhood of Berlin.

Sugar.

It was in Prussia that the experiments of Margrave concerning the extraction of sugar from beetrave, were first

put into practice on a great scale. To obtain sugar from that plant, several works were erected in the neighbourhood of Berlin, long before the process was generally known in France; and although commercial transactions are now facilitated by the communications that have been opened during peace, although the prejudices of many against this useful discovery have not been removed, the making of sugar from beetrave has become an important branch of industry both in Prussia and in France.

An incorrect notion of the fruitfulness of the province might perhaps be inferred from what has been stated concerning its productions. It is necessary therefore to observe that the produce of Brandenburg is insufficient for the consumption of its inhabitants; a great part, it is true, is consumed in the capital, which, according to the calculation of statistical writers, absorbs a third part, while Potsdam absorbs a fifth of the whole produce. The vine is by no means common in Brandenburg, it was unknown in the twelfth century; but early in the following century, some plants were brought from Pomerania, and in 1285 the wine of Stendal was sold in different parts of the province, and exported into different countries in the north. At a later period, when commercial intercourse was extended, these wines were found to be much inferior to others brought from Germany and France. Some of the vineyards have been destroyed by severe winters, and others by the devastations committed in the seven years' war. Their culture has been gradually given up, and it is believed in most instances not to indemnify the labour bestowed on it. The few vineyards that are observed at present, are situated in the neighbourhood of the principal towns, as Berlin, Potsdam and Brandenburg.

Many oxen are not bred in the province, and all of them are of a small size, those with which the towns are supplied, are imported from Podolia. The number of sheep has rapidly increased since the attention of agriculturists has been directed to the improvement of wool. It is probable indeed that there are as many sheep in Brandenburg

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as in Silesia, but it is certain that the wool is not nearly so valuable. The horses are small, and not of a good kind. The same wild animals are observed in the forests, as those which have been mentioned in the account of Silesia.

Silk worm.

The bombix or silk worm succeeds better in Brandenburg than in any other Prussian province. The quantity of silk derived from it is very considerable, and thus a new trade has been created, for which the Prussians are indebted to the enlightened views of the great Frederick.

Bees.

The numerous heaths and the culture of buckwheat, which has become very common, have facilitated the rearing of bees, and enabled the country people to improve a branch of rural industry for which the province is admirably adapted.

Fish.

The fish that abound in the rivers afford the means of subsistence to many of the inhabitants. The Elbe is perhaps an exception to the general rule, but the lakes, the Spree and almost all the other rivers contain a great many fish; some of them are of an excellent quality, indeed there are several kinds in the Spree, that are so much prized as to form a branch of lucrative exportation. The large murena or the *tendar* as it is called in the country, is one of this description.

Industry.

The principal manufactures in Brandenburg are linen, cotton, silk, cloth and woollen stuffs. Other articles afford employment to the people, as porcelain, glass, tobacco and many more which shall be mentioned in the account of the towns, that derive from them a part of their wealth. The useful metals are worked in the province, and no small portion of its trade consists in cast iron, fire-arms, different iron utensils, steel ornaments, wire, gold and silver lace.

Minerals.

The mineral productions in Brandenburg are not valuable; it is not indeed to be expected that there can be many minerals in so low and flat a country. The greater part of the land is what geologists term the secondary for-

mation. Aluminous schistus is very common in many places, and it is used in the different alum works. One of the largest schistous rocks that is worked, is situated in the neighbourhood of Freyenwald; it is mixed with sulphur and bitumen, and is said to rest on sand. BOOK CXVII.

Iron, or rather that variety which is called hydrate of iron, is the most valuable of the native metals; it abounds in many parts of the province, and it has given rise to a branch of industry, which is daily becoming more important. Beds of coal have been discovered after repeated and careful observations, and it is by means of that fuel, that the iron ore has been rendered useful, that founderies and iron works have been erected. The best stone for building is found in the neighbourhood of Rudersdorf and Rothemburg; it is obtained from that sort of calcareous rock, which is known in Germany by the name of *muschel-kalk*, and which by calcination may be made into an excellent lime. Extensive deposits of chalk are observed in the neighbourhood of Prentzlow, and in all the northern part of the province. The gypsum quarries that are worked, are chiefly confined to the vicinity of Sperenberg and the frontier of Saxony; most of them are abundant, and furnish cement of a good quality. A sort of clay from which earthen wares are made, is found in different districts. Lastly, it may be readily supposed that peats are very common in a country in which there are so many marshy plains. The fuel thus obtained, is used not only for domestic purposes, but in different manufactories.

The climate of Brandenburg is modified by its low situation, and the lakes which cover its surface. The atmosphere, though mild, is humid and subject to frequent variations in temperature. As the country is not sheltered by any mountainous chains, except those, in Bohemia, Saxony and Silesia, which are situated at a great distance, it is often exposed to violent storms from the north and the east. It may be compared from its latitude to northern regions; during severe winters, Fahrenheit's thermometer descends below zero; in summer it rises to eighty or eighty-five degrees. Climate.

**BOOK
CXVII.****Inhabitants.**

It has been said that the population of Brandenburg is made up of German, Swiss and French inhabitants. But the national character, or that by which the people have been generally distinguished, is different either from the German, the Swiss or the French. There is a certain gaiety or sprightliness among the upper classes, which is confined to them; the people that form the mass of the nation are grave, pensive and taciturn. Many of the Brandenburgers have a taste for the arts and sciences; and education is perhaps more diffused amongst them than any other nation in Europe. They are religious and tolerant, the greater number are protestants, and the predominant sects are the Calvinistic and Lutheran; the number of Catholics is proportionally much less than in Silesia.

**Public
spirit.**

That enlightened spirit, which is so widely diffused, has contributed to exalt the patriotism of the inhabitants; during the period that Europe, worn out by continued contests, leagued with much earnestness against the power that had dictated its laws for twenty years; Prussia, ill provided with men and money, rose in mass, and formed an army of 110,000 combatants; Brandenburg furnished readily its contingent, and the inhabitants of Berlin resolved in 1812 to resist obstinately a division of the French army that marched against their capital.

Language.

The German spoken in Brandenburg has been remarked for its purity; but it is equally true that the use of the French language is very common; men of letters, and every individual in the higher classes of society speak and write it correctly. The example of Frederick the Second made the French fashionable; it is well known how purely and correctly he spoke it, and his compositions, both in prose and verse, prove his intimate knowledge of that language.

Towns.

To complete the account of the province, it is necessary to mention some of the different towns. Of those that are situated between the Oder and the Warta, or in that part

of Brandenburg which borders on the great dutchy of Posen; the largest or Züllichau contains hardly 5500 inhabitants; the adjacent country is fruitful and well cultivated, but the wealth of the town depends chiefly on its cloth, woollen and linen manufactures, in which a trade is carried on with Poland, Germany and even Italy. The field of battle, where the Prussians were defeated by the Russians in 1759, is at no great distance from Züllichau. A large and flourishing town towards the north-west of the province requires a more minute description. Frankfort on the Oder was formerly included among the imperial cities, and possessing that title, it enjoyed the same privileges and immunities as were granted to those which assumed the more ostentatious title of free towns. It is the metropolis of a circle, it contains 16,000 inhabitants, and is supposed to be the seventh city in Brandenburg. The streets are straight and large, three suburbs are attached to it, there are several useful establishments, some remarkable monuments and a bridge of two hundred and thirty feet. An university, which was founded in 1506, acquired a high reputation in Germany; it has been transferred to Breslau, but Frankfort still possesses a gymnasium, a learned and scientific society, a botanical garden, a fine library, several public schools and different charitable institutions. It was in Frankfort that Leopold, duke of Brunswick, perished in 1765, the victim of an act of heroism and devotedness, of which princes have left but few examples. Painters and statuarys have represented the disaster occasioned by the inundation of the Oder, in which the duke of Brunswick lost his life in attempting to save others. So noble an action excited general admiration in the last century, and the town perpetuated the recollection of it by a monument which the inhabitants erected on the very place that the accident happened.

Frankfort is a town of considerable trade; three fairs are held in it every year, and on these occasions there is a great sale not only of linen and silk, the staple manufactures of the place, but of furs, morocco leather, hosiery,

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tobacco, grain and lint, which are cultivated in the neighbourhood, and exported into Silesia and Bohemia. Its commerce has been extended and improved by means of canals, which have opened an easy communication with Berlin and the Baltic. Frankfort was formerly considered a strong town, it was taken by the French on the 28th of October 1806.

The canal of Muhltrose, of which the course is about fifteen miles, is situated between Frankfort and Cottbus; it joins the Oder to the Spree, and bears the name of a small town that it waters. Furstemberg on the Oder lies to the right of Cottbus, it was destroyed by a conflagration on the 26th of May 1807. Beskow is built opposite to Furstemberg, on the banks of the Spree; it contains 3000 inhabitants, several cloth and linen manufactories, and an ancient castle, in which a court of justice is at present held. Lubben or Lubio, a town possessing the same sort of trade, and nearly of the same number of inhabitants, is situated on an island formed by the Berste and the Spree. Some vineyards have been planted in the neighbourhood of Cottbus; they are of little value, and hardly suffice for the consumption of its 6500 inhabitants. The manufactures consist principally of cloth and linen.

Frequent allusion is made to this ancient city in the writings of the old chroniclers, who generally call it Kotwick. It has belonged to Prussia since the year 1461; but Napoleon, by the treaty of Tilsit, made it over along with part of its territory to the King of Saxony. Few towns have suffered more from fires; it was burnt and rebuilt in the years 1468, 1470, 1597, 1600 and 1671. Its position is not favourable to commerce, for the Spree, on the right bank of which it is built, is only navigable at the distance of some leagues below it. The name of Spremberg indicates its situation on the banks of the Spree, and on the base of a hill; it is not a place of much importance, the population is little more than 2000 souls. The small town of Dobrilugk is situated beyond the eastern declivi-

ties of the hill that has been last mentioned, on the right bank of the Dober. It contains hardly a thousand souls, but there are a church, a castle, a cloth manufactory and several gin distilleries, from which it may be inferred that the people find that trade more profitable than others, carried on by the inhabitants of the neighbouring towns.

That part of Brandenburg which has been described, is in many places humid and marshy; the most of the towns are insignificant, but some branch of trade is carried on in each of them. Guben, Crossen, Luckau, Golssen and Iuterbogk, Baruth, which forms a part of a barony belonging to the count of Solms-Sonnenwald, Mittenwald and Belzig, that were formerly defended by castles, and lastly, Belitz with its ancient ramparts, are all of them manufacturing towns, and the only towns that can be enumerated in the southern part of Brandenburg, between its western limits and the left bank of the Spree, from the frontier of the kingdom of Saxony to Potsdam.

That town, which has been considered the finest in Brandenburg, is situated at the confluence of the Ruthe and the Havel, on an island of about twelve miles in circumference; some villages have been built on the same island, which is formed by the two rivers, a canal and the lakes of Schwielow and Weise. The houses are adorned with fine fronts, the streets are straight, broad and well paved; the public places and several edifices that shall be mentioned, render it well adapted for a royal residence. The town is supposed to be very ancient, but the traditions concerning its origin are uncertain. It was known in the tenth century by the name of *Postdepini*, apparently a Vandal word, which was changed at a later period into *Postzein*; but at that time it was only a burgh. It was raised into the rank of a town during the fourteenth century, although it hardly deserved that distinction before Frederick William began to embellish it in 1720. To fit it for his residence, Frederick built the fronts of the houses at his own expense, and the town soon assumed the appearance of a number of palaces. It must be confessed however that the interior

Potsdam.

Ancient
Name.

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of the houses corresponds rarely with their magnificent exterior, the apartments are ill arranged, and what seems to be the abode of a courtier, is often inadequate for the comfort of a moderate burgess. The city, which exhibits from one end to the other, a series of decorations, has long been called the finest barrack in Prussia. The garrison indeed is always numerous, and it occasions a degree of activity that cannot be attributed to its commerce or industry, although there are different manufactories, and although the population amounts to sixteen thousand individuals. Potsdam is encompassed with walls and palisades; there are seven gates, and the finest is the gate of Brandenburg, seven bridges, one of them is made of iron, and seven churches, of which one is set apart for the Catholics. It is divided into three parts, the old town, the new town and Frederickstadt. The most remarkable edifices are situated in the old town. The castle is worthy of notice, its roof is covered with copper and gilt ornaments, and the inside of the building is decorated with the finest Silesian marble. An obelisk of red marble from the same province is erected on the Old Market-place; it is upwards of seventy-five feet in height, and it rests on a pedestal of white Italian marble; on the base of the pedestal are the busts of the great elector and his three successors. The town-house which is built on the Old Market-place, is not unlike the one at Amsterdam. Two churches of a noble architecture are situated in the same quarter; one of them is the church of St. Nicholas, and its portal is the same as that of St. Maria-Maggiore at Rome; the other is the church of the garrison, which was built in 1739; it is worthy of being visited, because in its vaults are deposited the ashes of Frederick the First, and Frederick the Second. The latter died at Potsdam on the 17th of August, 1786, his tomb, remarkable for its simplicity, was visited by Napoleon in 1806, who obtained there the sword of that great man. The most of the monuments at Potsdam were more or less mutilated during the campaign of 1806, but they have been partly repaired by government since the peace of

1815. The New Town contains nothing remarkable except the French church, which was built after the model of the Pantheon at Rome, and the Military Orphan Hospital, a massive building of three stories, not to be admired for its architecture, but interesting from the purpose to which it is applied. The sons of soldiers only are received into the hospital, and it contains about a thousand inmates. It is an excellent regulation, and one that ought to be adopted in Catholic countries, that the religious opinions of parents cannot exclude their children from the benefits of similar institutions; the sons of sectarians of every denomination, may be admitted, nothing like proselytism is ever attempted. Another institution of the same nature was founded in 1726 for the orphan daughters of soldiers. The castle of *Sans Souci*, the New and the Marble palaces are situated near the quarter of *Frederichstadt*. The gardens attached to these buildings, the pictures contained in them, the fine view from the castle of *Sans Souci*, the bed-chamber where Frederick the Great died, in which the ancient furniture is carefully preserved, are visited by travellers, and serve to recall the great associations connected with them.

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If the environs of Potsdam are agreeable and picturesque, the neighbourhood of Berlin is dismal and monotonous. That town, which was founded in 1163, now comprehends five others and four suburbs. It is situated in the middle of a sandy plain, of which the cheerless prospect forms a striking contrast with the activity that prevails within the walls.

There is nothing in Berlin of the solemn pomp that is observable at Potsdam, and it is without doubt the best built town in Germany; not that the buildings display great taste or much of elegant and pure architecture, on the contrary, it is easy to detect that German style which is the reverse of classic beauty; but the whole is imposing, the streets are broad and straight, and many monuments erected by Frederick the Second remain, who laid out much of his money in embellishing the capital. We might

BOOK have too much to say, if we attempted to enter into any
CXVII. minute detail concerning Berlin. It is watered by the Spree, which at the distance of some leagues below it, throws itself into the Havel.

Number of It contains two hundred and twenty-four streets, of which
Streets and the finest are Frederick and William Street, seven thou-
Houses. sand three hundred and fifteen houses, and one hundred and ninety-two thousand inhabitants. Three thousand Jews have their synagogue. The French colony, that was compelled to fly from the fanatic persecution under Lewis the Fourteenth, amounts at present to 8000 souls, they are in possession of five churches.

Palaces. The royal palace is the finest in Berlin, and if it were uniform, it might be a model in its style of architecture. But as it was built during the reigns of several princes, the effect of the whole has necessarily been injured, although the plans and the designs of the celebrated Schluter have been adhered to.^a The proportions are on a great scale, the building consists of three stories, the height is a hundred and five feet, the length of the principal front, four hundred and forty-five, and the breadth, two hundred and sixty-five. The inside of this royal residence corresponds with the exterior. The finest apartments are on the second story; it contains a large library, a collection of medals and antiques, a museum of natural history, and a gallery of more than three hundred valuable paintings, exclusively of the Giustiniani collection, which was brought from Rome.

Arsenal. The arsenal is the finest building after the palace; it is supposed to be the largest in Europe, and it is certain that it can contain arms and munition for an army of two hundred thousand men. Other edifices and palaces have been erected in Berlin, but if an account of them were to be given, it might be necessary to omit what appears to be of greater importance. Many commodious buildings have been raised for the amusement of the wealthier classes.

^a See, Beschreibung des Königliches Schlosses zu Berlin, 1803.

The concert room can contain more than a thousand auditors, the theatre is built after a fine plan, and holds upwards of two thousand spectators, lastly, the Italian opera is much larger than those in some other European capitals, for there is room in it for five thousand persons; some of the boxes are reserved for strangers.*

The church of Saint Hedewige, one of the twenty-seven Churches in Berlin, is built after the model of the Pantheon. The church of Saint Mary has stood since the thirteenth century; its Gothic tower is two hundred and seventy-five feet in height. Some of the others are the ancient church of St. Nicolas, the cathedral and the church of the garrison. The first of these, it is certain, was finished before the year 1200, it is adorned with a number of Gothic ornaments, and within it is the tomb of the celebrated Puffendorf. The church of the garrison was completed during the reign of Frederick William in 1722. It is in the vaults of the cathedral that the members of the royal family are interred, and the nave of the same building was covered with many banners and trophies gained by the Prussians; but in 1806, after the French had entered Berlin, all of them were removed to Paris, and during eight years they remained in the church of the Invalids. They were destroyed before the first entrance of the allies, in order that the armies might not carry off the fruits of a conquest which was dearly purchased by the French. Such are the principal churches in Berlin, our limits prevent us from mentioning the others, although some of them are not inferior to any in point of architecture.

William's square is the finest in the town, and the number of squares is not less than twenty-two; it is adorned with the statues of five generals, who rendered themselves illustrious in the seven years' war. The square in front of the castle is larger, but in other respects much inferior to it; a statue of Prince Dessau has been erected

* Reichard's Traveller's Guide. Wegweiser für fremde und Einheimische durch Berlin, by Schmiel. Potsdam.

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there, a general, who laboured more successfully than any other in organizing the Prussian infantry. It is true that the Prussian government has seldom been negligent in rewarding individual merit by monuments that perpetuate the remembrance of it. The bronze statue of Frederick William, the work of Schluter, has been placed on the great bridge, the size is colossal, the weight is said to be upwards of 150 tons.

Gates.

The gate of Brandenburg is the principal entrance into Berlin, but there are not fewer than sixteen others, yet all of them are comparatively insignificant. The same gate resembles in form and architecture the Propylæum at Athens. A chariot made of copper, and drawn by four horses, which was taken away by the French during the first Prussian campaign, has been replaced on its summit. Although removed to Paris, it never appeared on any of the buildings in that town. The chariot, which was executed by a brasier at Berlin, is rather a monument of patience than of art; it is not the work of the chissel, but merely a relief on plates of copper.

Having thus enumerated the ornaments and edifices in the Prussian capital, it may be necessary to mention some of its useful establishments. It contains a lunatic asylum and several hospitals, the most ancient of which, or that of the Holy Spirit, was founded in the thirteenth century. The royal hospital of Invalids was finished in the year 1748; it is situated beyond the gate of Oranienburgh. The soldiers, who are admitted into it, like those in Paris, have commodious apartments, large gardens and extensive fields, which they only are entitled to cultivate.

**Libraries,
Collections,
&c.**

The scientific and literary institutions in the metropolis of a state so much enlarged as Prussia, ought not to be passed over in silence. The number of public libraries is not less than twenty-four, and the largest or the royal library contains upwards of a hundred and sixty thousand volumes. The museum of the university is rich in minerals and also in zoological and anatomical preparations; they are placed in a spacious building, which is called the Palace of the

university. The academy of sciences possesses a museum of natural history, and a valuable collection of philosophical instruments. Many others of the same kind are attached to different institutions, as the observatory, the college of Joachimsthal, the society of natural history, and the gymnasia of Frederick William and Berlin-Colln. BOOK
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The light of knowledge has been diffused by the university, which was established by government in 1810, and the advantages attending it are daily increasing. The number of students that matriculated in 1826 amounted to sixteen hundred and twenty-four, and among them were included four hundred foreigners. The theological faculty was attended by four hundred and forty-one students, the juridical by six hundred and forty-one, the philosophical by a hundred and seventy-one; and the medical by three hundred and eighty-nine. The university of Berlin cannot as yet be compared with that of Paris, but it may be remarked that similar institutions are very common in Germany, indeed it appeared unnecessary to many that Berlin should be included in the number of collegiate towns. Government however determined otherwise, and it is to its zeal and powerful assistance that the inhabitants are indebted for an university, which bids fair to rival the most celebrated in Europe.

The royal Academy of Sciences was instituted by Frederick the Great, who requested Leibnitz to frame its laws and statutes. It is divided into different classes, which comprehend science, history and literature. It was rendered illustrious by the labours of Leibnitz and Euler, and it still maintains its high reputation. Different institutions have been established for different branches of knowledge, as the medical and surgical academy, the veterinary school, the military college, the seminary for the instruction of engineers, the normal school, and the college for the education of youth in the French colony. There are besides many private seminaries, Sunday schools and others in which the poor are gratuitously educated. It might be difficult to enumerate all the societies Academies.

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that have been instituted for beneficent purposes, for relieving the indigent, curing the sick, and ministering to the wants of widows and orphans.

Walks.

The public walks in Berlin are numerous; the Lustgarten, which is nearly a mile long, and about a hundred yards broad, is adorned with six rows of lofty lime trees; the breadth of the principal alley is upwards of fifty feet. The Circle and the Zelte are more frequented than any others in the capital. Those situated beyond the walls on the side of the Brandenburg gate, are the Theirgarten, the park of Charlottenburg, where a mausoleum has been erected to the memory of queen Louisa; the Pickelswerder on a hill, from the summit of which one may observe the Havel, the country in the neighbourhood of Berlin, and Spaudau, a town at the distance of six miles to the west; it is peopled by 6000 inhabitants; and more remarkable on account of its quadrangular fortress, which was taken by the French in 1806, and bombarded by them in 1813, than for its iron works, its linen, silk and cotton manufactures. But these walks are not so much visited as the gardens and mineral springs of Freiderichsbrunnen at no great distance from Berlin.

**Elevation of
the soil.**

It is unnecessary to enter into minute statistical details concerning the capital; it may be remarked however, that its elevation is about a hundred and seventy-five feet above the level of the sea; it is more than nine miles in circumference, and the sum for which the houses and other buildings were insured against fire some years ago, amounted to 45,000,000 of rixdollars or L.6,750,000. Soldiers may be quartered in five thousand nine hundred and twenty-seven houses, and the total number of houses is not more than seven thousand three hundred and fifteen.

**Rents of the
Houses.**

The rent in 1824, of 41,037 houses, shops, flats and apartments, was upwards of 3,657,690 Prussian crowns, or L.548,654. Those that were let for a sum not exceeding 30 crowns, were equal in number to 12,015, and those of which the rental varied from 30 to 50, amounted to 10,928.

The highest rents were not more than \$400 crowns. It ought to have been observed that the Prussian crown is equivalent to three shillings. BOOK
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The national guard is composed of two squadrons, a company of carbiniers, eight regiments of infantry, and five non-equipped battalions. National
Guard.

Berlin carries on a considerable trade in jewellery; the ornaments made of iron in the same place, are valuable on account of their bright polish and delicate workmanship. Its light but solid carriages are sold in most parts of Prussia, and its porcelain rivals that of Saxony. The porcelain flowers which are still made at the royal manufactory, as ornaments for tables and chimney-pieces, were formerly so much used that the sum obtained for them every year, was greater than 100,000 crowns. But the German taste is now improved or at all events altered, and the porcelain flowers, notwithstanding their vivid colours and finished reliefs, are no longer fashionable. The silk, cotton and woollen manufactures afford employment to many individuals, and the royal cloth manufactory is not the least important; in short, few branches of industry are wholly neglected, and able workmen are to be found in almost every department. Manufac-
tures.

The Havel, before it reaches Brandenburg, forms at different places large sheets of water about a mile or a mile and a half in breadth; and on many of them are verdant and well wooded islands, which appear both in the neighbourhood of Potsdam, and between that town and Brandenburg. The latter place owes its prosperity and wealth to the revocation of the edict of Nantes, a revocation, of which the fatal consequences were long felt in France. The dying works at Brandenburg, its cloth, linen and paper manufactories were mostly established since that period; its trade, which is now considerable, was created by French exiles. The number of inhabitants amounts at present to 12,800. This ancient capital of the Mark of Brandenburg, is now the chief town in the circle of West-Havelland. The Havel divides it into three parts. The Branden-
burg.

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Old Town, which is situated on the right bank of the river, stands on an eminence ; it is small and ill built ; the **New Town** on the opposite bank is very different, the streets are broad and straight, part of it was built on an island that is called **Venice**, probably because all the houses are supported on piles. The college and the cathedral are situated in the **New Town**. The church of **St. Catherine** in the **Old Town**, is remarkable for its antiquity ; the other buildings are a large barrack and a military hospital.

Among the curiosities that are preserved at **Brandenburg**, one might mention the library and pictures of **Cranach**, a celebrated painter and the friend of **Luther** ; he was present at the marriage of the reformer with **Catherine Bora**, and embraced his religious opinions before the inhabitants of **Brandenburg**, now wholly protestant, adopted the **Augsburg** confession.

**Fisheries on
the Havel.**

The hill of **Carlung** rises above the city on the north-east, and commands an extensive view of the **Havel** and its lakes, which in the neighbourhood of **Brandenburg** are generally covered with fishing boats. The fisheries are so productive that they are farmed, and the revenue derived from them, forms a considerable part of the town's riches. The town of **Rathenau** is situated on the banks of the **Havel**, and at six leagues to the north-east of **Brandenburg**. It is peopled by 4600 inhabitants, it was built in the year 430. A colossal statue of the elector **Frederick William** is the only ornament worthy of notice. **Havelberg** is built on an island formed by two branches of the same river, its population is not much greater than that of **Rathenau**, it carries on a considerable trade in timber, and many of the boats that sail on the **Havel**, are built in its dock-yards. The refining of sugar is another branch of industry in which many find employment. The cathedral, by far the finest building in the place, is not inferior to any other in Germany. **Perleberg** is not so large as the last town, it contains about 3000 inhabitants. It is built on an agreeable situation, and watered by the **Stepenitz**, a short way below its junction with the **Perle**. It possesses

a large cloth manufactory; but lint and cattle make up its principal trade; the lint grows in abundance throughout the neighbouring country, and the greater part of it is sold at a fair, that is held every year in the town.

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Few places of any consequence are situated on the eastern and northern frontiers of Brandenburg, one of them however is the small town of Reinsberg. If a person travels to it from Perleberg, he must go out of his way in order not to enter two small districts, which are together hardly two square leagues in superficies, but which form a part of the dutchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. It is difficult to imagine why Prussia omitted in the recent treaties to cede some portion of its frontiers to the neighbouring principality, in order not to have a foreign territory in the midst of its dominions, more particularly as it contains only some insignificant villages, the acquisition of which could have been attended with little difficulty. Reinsberg is watered by the small river Rein, and built on the banks of a lake; its population does not exceed 1500 souls, and its trade depends on its glass and porcelain works. The rural palace of the late Henry, prince royal of Prussia, is situated in the vicinity; although now suffered to go into decay, its gardens, still remarkable for their luxuriance and the fine views from them, may account in some degree at least, for the attachment that the prince had for a residence, in which his ashes are now deposited, and which was long inhabited by the great Frederick before his accession to the throne.

Gransee is about five leagues to the south-east of Reinsberg; although its population is greater than that of the last town by at least a thousand inhabitants, it contains little that is likely to excite attention. New Ruppín, which is somewhat larger, is built on the lake of the same name, and chiefly inhabited by manufacturers and tradesmen. It is the metropolis of the circle, and its population amounts to 4600 souls. Lindow or Lindau is partly peopled by a Swiss colony; its largest building is an Orphan Hospital, an institution that was hardly to be expected in a

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town of 1300 inhabitants. Fehrbelin is only memorable for the victory, which was gained by the great elector over the Swedes in 1675. The small town of Oranienburg or Orangeburg was for some time the residence of Frederick William, who possessed a country seat in the immediate vicinity. That country seat and the town were called Boetzow or Botzau, but the name was changed into that which they now bear, shortly after the marriage of the elector with Louisa, princess of Orange. The library of the prince is still preserved in the town, but his ancient castle is changed into a manufactory of sulphuric acid.

Bernau owes its trade and commerce to the French colony that fled to it after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. Its old fortifications, which still exist, enabled the inhabitants to defend themselves during the fifteenth century against the followers of John Huss, the most zealous precursor of the reformation. But as Bernau as well as the whole province of Brandenburg became protestant under the elector Joachim the Second, about the year 1560, the town served as a place of refuge for the French calvinists. Many of the inhabitants are affluent, almost all of them, industrious; among other articles they carry on a trade in strong beer, but their principal commerce consists in silk and woollen stuffs. Three churches and an hospital have been built in the town, although the population is hardly equal to 2300 souls.

Custrin is the first place of any consequence on the south-west of Bernau. The marshes and the Oder which encompass it, render it almost impregnable; it was however surprised and burnt by the Russians in 1758. It has since that period been repaired and improved; formerly dirty and ill built, the streets are now straight and regular. It consists of the old, the new town, and three suburbs that are defended by a fort, which communicates with the new town by means of a bridge, nearly nine hundred feet in length. This bridge is the most remarkable structure in Custrin, but it possesses besides an arsenal, an hospital, a house of correction, and two seminaries, one of which is

set apart for the Lutherans and the other for the Calvinists. The inhabitants are not fewer than four thousand five hundred, and a great number of them are employed in manufacturing woollen stuffs. BOOK
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The town of Landsberg, at ten leagues to the east of Custrin, is watered by the Warta, and rendered more important from its commerce with Poland and Pomerania than from its population, which amounts, however, to nine thousand inhabitants. It is the last town of any consequence in the eastern part of Brandenburg. The small town of Angermunde is situated near the lower part of the Oder, and the left bank of that river; it is peopled by two thousand seven hundred inhabitants, many of whom are of French extraction. There are three seminaries, one for Greek and Latin, another for German, and a third for French. The town of Schwedt is not far from Angermunde, but nearer the Oder and on the same bank of the river; it contains four thousand three hundred inhabitants, and is defended by an ancient castle. The fine country residence of Monplaisir is situated in the neighbourhood. It might not be worth while to mention the small town of Boitzenburg on the east of Schwedt, were it not to remark that the lakes which encompass it, contain a number of tortoises, and abound in large trout, that are mostly exported to Berlin.

Prenzlau or Prenzlau is the most northern town in Brandenburg; situated on the river and the lake of Ucker, peopled by nine thousand three hundred inhabitants, rich from its industry, which consists in manufacturing cloth and linen, in dressing leather, and preparing tobacco, and possessing a considerable trade in grain and cattle, it is one of the most flourishing and best built towns in the province. The public library, which is now valuable, was established by M. d'Arnim. A disastrous combat was fought in its suburbs on the 28th of October 1806, between the French and the remains of the Prussian army that had escaped from the battle of Jena; in consequence of this second defeat, Prince Hohenlohe, a prince of Meck-

BOOK lenburg-Schwerin, Prince Augustus Ferdinand of Prussia,
CKVII. and several generals were taken prisoners.

Pomerania,
position,
&c.

It is only necessary to give some account of Pomerania, to finish the description of the northern part of Prussia. That province is bounded on the north by the Baltic sea, on the west by Mecklenburg and Brandenburg, on the south by the last province, and on the east by Western Prussia. It is not less in superficial extent than five hundred and sixty-six German square miles, or ten thousand one hundred and fifty English square miles. The total population amounts to seven hundred thousand seven hundred inhabitants, which gives about sixty-nine individuals for every English square mile. It appears, therefore, that the province is less populous than Silesia or Brandenburg. Its name is derived from the Slavonic word Pomarski, which signifies a country in the neighbourhood of the sea.

Ancient in-
habitants.

Pomerania was inhabited in the time of Tacitus by Goths, Rugians and Herules, all of them, different branches of the Slavonic race. The inhabitants of the western part, which now forms the territory of Stettin, were called Sidini. They left their country during the fifth century, and invaded different provinces of the Roman empire.

Kingdom
of the
Wends.

The Venedes or Weudes succeeded them, and founded a kingdom in Pomerania, of which the chiefs were called *Konjur af Vinland*, or kings of the country of the Wendes. Their first prince, it is said, was Mistew or Mistevojus.^p The monarchy however was but of short duration. The people that composed it, or the Slaves, the Cassubians or Pomeranians Proper, divided themselves into distinct states under different princes.

Ancient
worship.

A sort of trinity, that was admitted into the worship of these ancient inhabitants, was represented by an idol with three heads, to which they gave the name of *Triglaf*.^q

^p Hildebrand, *Genealogia ducum Pomeraniæ*. Rangon, *Pomerania diplomatica*.

^q Sassius, *Disputatio de Pomerania*.

It was not before the eleventh century that they were converted to Christianity by Otho, bishop of Bamberg. The princes or dukes of Pomerania were first made members of the empire by Frederick the First in 1186. The Margraves of Brandenburg claimed their right of sovereignty over the country, and to obtain their claim, made war at different times against the dukes of Pomerania. But an end was put to these destructive wars, when the princes of the house of Hohenzollern became electors of Brandenburg; for it was stipulated that they should renounce the sovereignty, to which until that period they had vainly pretended. It was also agreed that Pomerania should be ceded to Brandenburg, if the ducal family became extinct. But that treaty was not fulfilled in 1637, after the death of Bogislaus the Fourteenth, the last duke of the ancient Slavo-Wendic race. The whole of Germany was then involved in the thirty years' war; the Swedes made themselves masters of Pomerania, and it was granted to them at the conferences that preceded the treaty of Westphalia, as an indemnity for the expenses of the war, and the sacrifices which they had made for the welfare of Germany. Pomerania, notwithstanding the different reclamations, was divided according to the terms of the peace signed at Osnabruch in 1648. Sweden obtained under the title of a fief, the island of Rugen and all the country situated between Mecklenburg and the banks of the Oder; the elector lost Stralsund and Stettin, the two most important towns in the duchy. The country from the left bank of the Oder, opposite the last town, to the shores of the Baltic, as well as the island of Rugen, was then called Swedish Pomerania.

The destructive war between Charles the Twelfth and Peter the First, was not unfavourable for the elector. An holy alliance formed between the czar and the kings of Poland, Denmark, England and Prussia availed itself of the exhausted state into which Sweden had fallen from the misfortunes of its king. Peter the First took possession of Stettin, and delivered that important fortress to Frederick

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William, who had supplied him with large sums of money during the siege. After the death of Charles the Twelfth, Queen Ulrica Eleanor, his sister, being compelled to make peace on any terms, ceded in 1720 to the king of Prussia, Stettin and the country between the Oder and the Perne for two millions of crowns, and that great sum was paid by the prince for a small territory, although the total revenue derived from it was not more than 100,000 crowns, and although he was already master of its most important fortress. Swedish Pomerania, in consequence of this pecuniary arrangement, comprehended merely the island of Rugen and the country between the Baltic sea and the river Peene; the whole of its superficial extent was not greater than 1372 English square miles. But that small portion of land, like a farm on which the flocks pass from the hands of one proprietor to another, was still destined to change its rulers. The projects formed by Russia in order to consolidate its power in Europe, and to enable it to contend against France, its only formidable rival, were followed in 1805 by the conquest of Swedish Pomerania. The whole country, which was formerly called Pomerania, was not made over to Prussia before the last treaties.

Soil.

The soil of the province, almost entirely formed by accessions from the sea, and alluvial deposits from rivers and streams, is sandy in many places, chiefly near the embouchure of the Oder and the shores of the Baltic. It becomes more argilaceous, in proportion as we remove from the coast, but the declivity is so insensible that the river water accumulates, and forms many lakes, some of which are of considerable extent. Other parts of the land are covered with marshes, and the atmosphere is humid and often obscured by mists.

Climate.

It is certain, however, that the cold and moist climate of Pomerania is not unhealthy; its position between the fifty-third and fifty-fourth degree of latitude accounts for the length of its days, the longest of which is sixteen hours and a half, and the shortest seven and a half.

A great part of the country is covered with forests and

extensive heaths, indeed from what has been already said of it, its want of fertility need not excite surprise. It is only the banks of the rivers and the lakes that can be advantageously cultivated; and the system of agriculture is still more imperfect than in Silesia.^f If the climate is less adapted for the vine than that of Brandenburg, it must be chiefly attributed to the colder temperature of the former province. It appears, however, that the culture of the grape was introduced in the twelfth century, and if the accounts are to be believed, the attempt was not unsuccessful. Otho, Bishop of Bamberg, who is styled in the legends, the apostle of Pomerania, visited the country in 1124, for the purpose of converting the inhabitants; he observed that the art of making hydromel was well understood, but it was thought unbecoming to substitute that liquor instead of wine in the sacrament of the supper. When the same bishop returned in 1128, he brought with him a large cask, filled with young vines, which were planted by his direction, in order that he might be enabled to administer wine to the converts; at that period, laymen as well as ecclesiastics partook of the communion in both kinds. It is owing without doubt to the same cause that the culture of the vine was introduced with Christianity into different northern countries. Mæhsen makes an important and curious remark on this subject, he affirms that the difficulty of obtaining wine in the north, otherwise than by commerce or an expensive cultivation, gave rise to the custom of communicating in one kind. Thus says that writer, necessity brought about a sophism by which the most solemn of all the institutions founded by the author of Christianity, was changed.

The rivers in Pomerania abound in fish, and the most valuable are the sturgeon and the salmon. It frequently happens that sturgeons from eight to ten feet in length are

^f See Jacob's First Report.

^g Geschichte der Wissenschaften in der Mark Brandenburg, in sondere der Arzeney-Wissenschaft. Page 206.

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animals.**

taken in the Oder, and it is observed too, that these fish come into the rivers at an earlier period than the salmon.

The forests in the province were at one period frequented by elks and wild oxen ; but these animals are now very rare, and it has been remarked by the inhabitants in these districts, that they have mostly disappeared since the last wars, by which their country was desolated. Excellent timber both for naval and other purposes is obtained from the forests. The ancient Further Pomerania, which extends to the east of the Oder, is noted for its mineral and saline springs ; but the water in general is somewhat brackish or at all events not so fresh as in the other Prussian provinces. The same part of the country is covered with rich pastures, on which numerous herds are reared. The Pomeranian horse is supposed to be of as good a kind as any in Prussia.

**Island of
Rugen.**

The island of Rugen lies opposite to Stralsund, and near the northern extremity of Pomerania ; its extent, configuration and the nature of the soil, may be shortly described. Its greatest length from north to south is not more than thirty miles ; its greatest breadth from east to west is about twenty, and the extent of its surface is nearly equal to two hundred and eighty-two. Its numerous creeks and bays give it a very irregular and rather a singular appearance. It is only separated from the continent by a channel, which in the neighbourhood of Stralsund is little more than a mile in breadth. The narrow, deep and intricate gulfs afford but an insecure anchorage for ships, not only on account of the shallows and sand banks which often change their position, but also because the tempests on these shores are so violent that the strongest dikes and most solid moles may be demolished in a few hours.

**Hiddensee,
Humantz,
Ruden.**

Rugen is partly surrounded by several small islands ; the most considerable on the west are Hiddensee, and Humantz ; Ruden is the largest on the south-east, from which it is not more than four miles distant. The last island was united to Rugen before the year 1309, but during that year, the waters of the sea covered part of the island, and formed some of the bays, which exist at present. It fol-

lows from the extent of the Bodden, or the strait which separates the two islands, that a surface of 48 square miles which formed the southern part of Rugen, was submerged by the last encroachment of the sea. The northern part of the island of Rugen is composed of chalk, the peninsula of Jasmund is almost entirely formed of the same substance; the central and other districts in the island are covered with argil, sand and gravel, as well as red loam of a very fertile quality, which appears to have been left by alluvial deposits. Granite, porphyry and other rocks are observed on the sand.

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The name of the island was in all probability derived from that of the ancient inhabitants, who called themselves **Ancient Inhabitants.** Rugii or Rugiani, and like the other natives of these northern countries, were of Slavonic origin. Their conversion to Christianity did not take place before the twelfth century.

The industry of the people has for a long time been **Industry.** principally confined to agriculture and the rearing of cattle. Their attention has been directed to these pursuits from the nature of the soil, which in many places is remarkably fruitful, so much so that the island is often called the granary of Stralsund. Many oxen, horses and sheep are reared on the rich pastures, and the most of them are imported into Prussia. The number of inhabitants amounts to twenty-seven thousand.

The shepherds and husbandmen live together in villages **Bergen** and small towns. Bergen or the largest of any contains 2000 inhabitants, and is considered the capital of the island; it is the seat of government, and the residence of the different authorities. Bergen is situated on a height, which commands a view of nearly the whole island. Many picturesque and romantic sites may be observed from the town; but those, who wish to behold the scenery that inspired the early bards of Germany, must visit the peninsula of Jasmund, and Stubbenkammer, a chalk mountain that is sometimes called the Royal Seat, and to the summit of which

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no one has ascended since the time of Charles the Twelfth. They must see too the promontory of Arcona, to which frequent allusion is made in Scandinavian poetry. The statue of *Svantavid*, the Jupiter of the Vandals, is preserved in an ancient church near the village of *Allenkirchen*. The Black lake is so called from its fish of the same colour, and it is situated in a sacred wood described by Tacitus.

"In an island on the ocean," says the historian, "there is a sacred wood, where a chariot consecrated to the goddess, and covered with a veil, is allowed to be touched by none except the priest. It is his duty to attend the goddess whenever she enters her holy vehicle; the chariot is drawn by two heifers, and he follows it in profound veneration. If the goddess descends and honours any place with her presence; mirth, feasts and days of rejoicing ensue. On these occasions the natives never go to war, never even handle arms, every hostile weapon is laid aside. But the blessings of peace and repose are only felt for a short time, the goddess soon becomes weary of the conversation of mortals, and is conducted back to the temple by the priest. The chariot is then washed and purified in the lake, as well as the veil, nay the deity herself, if one chuses to believe it. Slaves are employed in the lustration, and they are forthwith doomed to be swallowed up in the same lake. On that account men are impressed with mysterious terror, and an holy ignorance of what that must be, which none can witness, but those that must immediately afterwards perish."

Hertha or
Erde.

The goddess Hertha or Erde seems to have been the Cybele of the Rugii; such at least is the most probable conclusion that can be derived from her name, which signifies the earth in the German language. The lake and the wood mentioned by Tacitus are still held in great veneration by the islanders, so difficult is it to get rid of superstitions founded on fear.

Curiosity is not the only motive that induces travellers to visit the island; many invalids resort to it; indeed the thermal and ferruginous springs at Sagard have been much frequented by Germans since the year 1794. The patients find amusement and recreation, a remedy sometimes more effectual than the use of the waters. Putbus on the shores of the Bodden is another watering place that has of late years risen into notice.

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Thermal
springs.

An island still more irregular in its form than Rugen is Usedom. Usedom. situated on the eastern coast of Pomerania, and on the south of Ruden. The breadth of Usedom is in some places less than half a mile, and in others, upwards of twelve. One part of it is not more than 800 yards from the continent, and its southern shores encompass the greater portion of the lake Haf, which is neither so large as the Frisch-Haf nor the Curisch-Haf, but which extends to the distance of twenty-eight miles from east to west, and is about five miles at its mean breadth from north to south. The island of Usedom is peopled by ten or eleven thousand inhabitants; it is partly covered with hills of sand and forests in which are found wild boars, stags and other animals. The land is not fruitful, and the people on the island are more employed in fishing than in agriculture. The capital of Usedom is a town of the same name, which contains a population of 1200 souls. A strait not broader than 800 yards, separates it from Wallin, another island not so large as the former, but inhabited by 6000 individuals; the capital, which is also called Wallin, contains 2500 individuals. The soil, very different from that of Usedom, appears to be formed by alluvial deposits; its rich pastures are covered with a great number of cattle, which constitute the principal wealth of the island. Other islands are situated on the coast of Pomerania, but all of them are much smaller than those which have been already mentioned.

Stralsund, in the north of Pomerania, the chief town of a government, was formerly considered one of the strongest places in Europe. The island of Rugen, and the strait which separates the town from the lakes and marshes, that encom-

Towns.
Stralsund.

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pass it, on the side of the land, enabled the inhabitants to defend it until 1807, when it was dismantled by the French army. The town was founded in 1230, the streets are crooked and narrow, the houses are dirty and ill built. It contains however a safe and spacious harbour, and the finest public buildings are the arsenal and the mint. As it was formerly among the number of the Hanseatic towns, it still possesses many important commercial privileges, and its trade of late years has been much improved. The population in 1807 did not amount to 11,000 souls; it is now equal to 15,900.

Towns in
the same
circle.

The small town of Barth lies to the west of Stralsund, at the embouchure of the river of the same name, it is a seaport of some consequence, and it contains more than 4000 inhabitants. On the south-east of Stralsund, is situated the town of Greifswalde, the best built of any in the circle. The most remarkable edifices are the church of Saint Nicolas, and the university, which was endowed in 1456, and to which a very valuable library has been since attached. The arts and sciences are cultivated, and it possesses more resources than most towns of 7300 inhabitants; thus for instance, it has its observatory and literary society, a theatre and other places of amusement. Its situation, at three miles' distance from the sea, is favourable to commerce; it is surrounded with walls, and flanked with bastions, its ramparts are shaded with trees, and form agreeable walks. A large salt mine is worked at no great distance from its walls, and the wood of Eldena forms the finest part of the neighbouring country. Wolgast, situated on the strait that separates the continent from the island of Usedom, has a safe harbour, the houses are neatly built, and it contains 4400 inhabitants. It was formerly the residence of the dukes of Pomerania, and the ruins of their old castle rise above the ancient walls of the town.

Circle of
Stettin.

The Peene divides the circle of Stralsund from that of Stettin, in which the two most eastern towns are Demmin and Anklam. The first was much injured during the battle that was fought between the French and the Russians

in the month of April 1807; it is not peopled by more than 4000 inhabitants. The second is a manufacturing town, and carries on a trade in cloth, linen and leather; its harbour on the Peene is sometimes covered with vessels, and its population is greater than 6000 souls. Pasewalk possesses cloth manufactories, tan yards and distilleries, but all its inhabitants do not amount to 3500.

Stettin or Old Stettin, as it is sometimes called, contains ^{Stettin.} nearly 26,000 individuals. Its principal fortifications are the two forts of Prussia, and those of William and Leopold. The town is built on the left bank of the Oder, and communicates by a bridge with the suburbs of Lastadia, which is situated on the right bank of the same river, and encompassed with ditches and marshes. Stettin was formerly a Hanseatic town; it is now the metropolis of a government, the seat of the different provincial authorities and a supreme court of justice. The royal castle, the governor's palace, the theatre, the mint and the arsenal are the principal edifices. There are six churches, and in that of the castle are the tombs and portraits of several dukes of Pomerania. The statue of Frederick the Second, is the great ornament of the Royal Square, it was erected in consequence of the unanimous votes of the districts. The store-houses belonging to the salt company attract the attention of strangers, they are supposed to be the largest of any in Prussia. The most useful institutions are the university, the astronomical, drawing and naval seminaries and the normal school. The collections that are worthy of being visited, are the academical library, and the museum belonging to a lodge of free masons. The most frequented public walks are situated in the neighbourhood of the square and ramparts, they are shaded by lime trees.

A large space of ground has been laid out as a public walk near the village of Ziegenarth in the immediate neighbourhood of the town, and in fine weather, sailing parties set out from the bridge of Wick, and from Frauendorf on the Oder. The lake of Damm, the large forests on the right side of it, the plains which extend on the left to the

BOOK remotest verge of the horizon, and the numerous vessels
EXVII. at the mouth of the Oder, form part of the scenery in the adjoining country.

Trade. The trade of Stettin is very considerable; some of its merchant ships belong to individuals, and others to the bank of Berlin. In some years not fewer than 1200 trading vessels have entered its port. It is unnecessary to enumerate the different articles, which make up the imports and exports of this commercial town, but it may be remarked, that 21,000 tons or 42,000,000 pounds of lint, the produce of Prussia, are shipped and exported every year from its harbour. Stettin opened its ports to the French on the 21st of October 1806, and they kept possession of them until the 22d of November 1813, the day on which the garrison capitulated; the Prussian army made their entrance on the 5th of the following month. Kirstein or Kirstenius, a Latin poet and celebrated physician, the friend of Christina queen of Sweden, is one of the few distinguished men that have been born in Stettin.

Stargard. Stargard, a town of 8400 inhabitants, which must not be confounded with another place of the same name in the centre of Western Prussia, lies to the east of Stettin, on the banks of the Ilhna. The cupola of St. Mary, one of its churches, has been considered the finest in Germany; it possesses an university and a school of arts; its trade consists principally in cloth and spirits. Treptow or New Treptow lies towards the north, on the Bega, its inhabitants are mostly artisans, and it contains 4000 souls.

Colberg. Colberg, built on the sea shore, at the embouchure of the Persant, is a place of considerable importance both from its fortress, and the number of its inhabitants, which amounts to 7500. The largest public buildings are the townhouse, the cathedral and an aqueduct by which all the inhabitants are supplied with water. There is also a convent for seven daughters of the nobility, and nine of the burghesses. Its salt mines, its trade, which extends

even to Spain, its cloth and linen manufactures, its salmon and lamprey fisheries are the principal sources of its wealth. ROSEN
GEBIRGE
 Coslin or Koeslin is not so large, it contains only 4000 inhabitants. The town is modern and well built; having been wholly destroyed by fire in 1718, it was rebuilt by Frederick William the First, and the inhabitants, to express their gratitude, erected his statue in one of the squares. It has been selected as the residence of the governor, and among its useful establishments, may be mentioned the Pomeranian Society of agriculture, and several schools. Coslin is situated on a dismal and desert plain, which reaches westward to the banks of the Bega, and is more than twenty leagues in extent; but the mountain of Gollenberg rises at the distance of a league from the town, and its summit commands an extensive view of the sea. The small town of New Stettin, which contains only 2400 inhabitants, is situated between the lakes of Streitzig and Wilm, and not far from the sources of the Persant. It possesses an university, a royal castle; and an almshouse; the last establishment has been long managed in a way that is highly creditable to the municipal authorities. Polzen or Polzin, a town of 1700 inhabitants, is built in the middle of an agreeable and fruitful plain, encompassed with mountains and forests; it is much visited on account of a medicinal spring in the neighbouring village of Luisenbad.

The town of Stolpe, so called from the river on which it is built, contains a population of 6000 souls. It possesses a considerable maritime commerce, its beer is sold throughout Prussia, and not the least important part of its trade consists in yellow amber ornaments. Rugenwalde is a small seaport on the Baltic and at the mouth of the Stolpe; the principal articles exported from it, are linen, sail-cloth, and spirits. It is peopled by 3800 inhabitants; but a great many strangers resort to it in the summer season. We may now terminate our account of Pomerania, for the small town of Lauenburg, notwithstanding its cloth manufactories, is too insignificant to merit notice. Belgard and other places of the same sort, through which the tra-

BOOK veller passes in his journey towards the eastern extremity
CXVII. of the province, resemble villages rather than towns. It may be observed, however, that the fine sand in the neighbourhood of Leba is more valuable than any other in Prussia, for the purpose of making glass and crucibles.

Province of The province of Saxony has been one of the latest and
Saxony. most important acquisitions made by Prussia. It is mostly formed by portions dismembered from the Saxon states. Divided into three governments, it is bounded on the north and the west by the kingdom of Hanover, the duchy of Brunswick, and electoral Hesse, on the south by the duchies of Saxe-Weimar, Saxe-Gotha and the kingdom of Saxony, lastly on the east and the north-east by Brandenburg. It is not less than four hundred and fifty-eight German or more than five thousand four hundred and twenty-five English miles in superficial extent. Its population amounts to 1,259,200 inhabitants, who are scattered in a hundred and forty-three towns, twenty-six burghs, and two thousand nine hundred and sixty-five villages. Thus there are more on an average than two hundred and thirty individuals for every square mile, a circumstance from which some notion may be inferred of the resources of the province.

Ancient in- It is difficult to arrive at much accurate information concerning the ancient people that inhabited the country.
habitants. It might be necessary to examine hypotheses, and explain obscure passages, on which little light has been thrown by the labours of Spangenberg, Fabricius and other authors, who have written the history of the Saxons. They were of the same origin as the people, who before the Christian era, possessed the country that now forms the kingdom of Saxony, and it is not less certain that a considerable portion of the province was peopled by the Wendes. The ancient Saxons sacrificed their prisoners of war to the gods, consecrated the vast forests of Germany, and like the Celts, never built any temples. Their superstition too, of the same description as that of the barbarous nations that exist at present in northern countries, was not confined to one or two objects. They calculated future events from

the flight of birds, and the neighing of horses; the different intonations were interpreted by the priests. The flesh of wild animals was their principal food, and the art of making fermented liquors was known to them from time immemorial. It is unnecessary to mention the conquests of that warlike people, who at different periods desolated many European countries, made themselves masters of England, and invaded Spain. It is well known with what obstinacy they resisted for thirty years the armies of Charlemagne. That monarch, whose enlightened views have been discovered by some writers, had no other aim in making war against the Saxons, than to compel them to embrace Christianity, which they at last adopted reluctantly, when unable to contend against his numerous troops, and when worn out by destructive contests. But their forced conversion lasted only for a season; and it was not before the twelfth century, during the reign of Albert the Bear, that they began to feel the blessings of a religion, which has often been injured by the protection of princes.

The geology of the province has been repeatedly examined; it shall be shown in the sequel that it abounds in metals, coal and different minerals. The streaked sandstone that is observed at Oster-Weddingen, about three leagues to the south-west of Magdeburg, belongs to the coal formation, and the different deposits that rest on it, are the monuments of the period, which geologists have termed the third formation. But these deposits indicate, as Professor Germar has remarked, a still more recent formation than that in the neighbourhood of Paris.* It is certain at least that the remains of more than twenty-two genera of shell fish, the species of which are different from any in the environs of Paris, and resemble more those that exist at present, might be collected in the sand near Oster-Weddingen. They are placed below a thin stratum of loam, which in the province of Saxony serves as a covering for the fossil remains. It appears from the work of M. Frederick Hoff-

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* Neues, Journal für chemie und Physik, Volume vii. p. 176.

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man, that among the argillaceous schistus to the north of Magdeburg, and also among the grauwacke is the same part of the country, the remains of different plants may be observed, of monocotyledones, particularly palms, and of graminifolia or reeds.

Bituminous
schistus.

The schistus becomes bituminous in the neighbourhood of Alvensleben, and fossil fish are embedded in it; the same substance is covered with streaked sandstone in the vicinity of Ermsleben, to the south of Magdeburg, and it contains the impressions of many plants impregnated with sulphurated iron. Fish impregnated with the same substance are enclosed in the schistus near Rothenberg on the Saale, and also near Mansfeld and Eisleben; the most of them belong to species which are now extinct, but of which the genera still exist, or to species of which the genera are wholly unknown. It is observable that all of them are contorted, as if their death had been sudden and violent.

Successive
deposits.

M. Friesleben observes that the whole land in the part of the country already mentioned, and perhaps in the greater part of Germany, may be arranged into four distinct divisions.

The first or the one nearest the surface, immediately below the vegetable mould, consists of calcareous rocks mixed with shells, not unlike the rocks that form the chain of Jura.

The second contains, but not in any regular order, deposits of argil, sand, marl, gypsum, coal and limestone, and in some parts iron ore is found, but animal remains are rarely observed.

The third consists of that compact limestone, which the Germans call *zechstein*, the formation of which is more ancient than the last sort, and also of gypsum, sandstone, iron and copper schistus, marked in many places with the impressions of fish.

The fourth is composed of coal, red sandstone, iron and lime, and it contains many vegetable fossils.

Mountains.

Brocken and Dolmar are the highest mountains in the provinces of Saxony. The last however is not more than

2020 feet in height. According to the measurement of M. de Trebra, the former is not higher than 2966 feet, but it appears from more correct observations that it is at least 3534. The Brocken has perhaps attracted the attention of naturalists and geologists more than any other mountain in Germany; it has been described at different times by Schroeder, Bernouilli and Deluc. It forms the northern extremity of the Hartz mountains, and the eastern limit of the provinces of Saxony. On its summit are several blocks of granite, which the country people call the *Wizards' chairs* and *altars*; they are supposed to be the remains of a monument erected at a very remote period to the god *Krodo*, that was worshipped by the people. He who ascends to the summit of the same mountain may survey a plain seventy leagues in extent. The Eker, a small river rises from its base.

The province of Saxony is rich in grain, fruits and different vegetables; crops of lint, hemp and tobacco are raised, and the vine is cultivated in some places, for instance in the neighbourhood of Merseburg. Agricultural produce.

It may be seen from the description of the principal towns in the province, that its mines, iron works and founderies, woollen and linen manufactories, the quantity of sugar made from beetrave, and also the great number of its oxen, sheep and horses render it one of the wealthiest countries in the Prussian monarchy. Manufactures.

The number of catholics is not so great as in Silesia, but much greater than in Pomerania and Brandenburg. It appears from a statement of M. Hassel that there were not more in 1817, than seventy-eight thousand catholics, while the number of protestants amounted in the same year to one million, a hundred and thirty-two thousand nine hundred and seventy-two. It is also stated that the Jews amounted in all to three thousand two hundred and forty-two persons, while only four indi- Religious sects.

Observations sur l'interieur des Montagnes, page 130. Folio edition.
Statischer umriss. Folio, 1823.

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viduals belonged to the sect of Menon, that Dutch reformer, who taught in the sixteenth century that the only rule of faith was contained in the New Testament, that a trinity was incompatible with the divine nature, that the soul after death was neither in heaven nor in hell, and that a true Christian ought not to hold any office that can be purchased.

Foreign
principalities.

Several small states subject to foreign princes, are encompassed by the province of Saxony. These states belong to the great duke of Saxe Weimar, the king of Hanover, the duke of Brunswick, the prince of Schwartzburg, and the princes of Hanau. It is necessary therefore not to confound their dominions with those of Prussia.

Wittenberg.

If we begin by describing the towns in the eastern part of the province, Wittenberg on the banks of the Elbe, is the first in importance. It is dependent on the government of Merseburg, and contains a population of 6700 inhabitants. The university of Wittenberg was at one time attended by a great number of students, but it has now lost much of its celebrity. The other seminaries are a lyceum, a school of theology, and a school of surgery. There is not more than one bridge across the Elbe, and it is built of wood. Few places have suffered more from fires and from war. While it was bombarded in 1760, eighteen public buildings and more than a third part of the town were destroyed; the loss it sustained in 1806, was not less considerable, and in 1812, three hundred houses were wholly consumed. It was exposed from the first of March 1813 to the twelfth of January in the following year, to the attacks of the Prussian general Tauentzien, who took it by assault from the French, and was rewarded for his conquest with the title of count of Wittenberg. During that long struggle, the university and the castle were much injured, twenty-six houses were overturned in the town, and two hundred and fifty-nine in the suburbs. The Prussian government has since the peace done all it could to remedy the evils occasioned by the war. Two new suburbs were built in 1817, one of which

on the left bank of the Elbe has been called Little Wittemberg. The house inhabited by Luther is situated in the town; many distinguished strangers have written their names on the walls of the chamber in which the reformer used to spend his time; the name of Peter the Great is written with chalk, and a glass case has been placed above it, BOOK
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The remains of Luther were deposited in the castle church, there too rest the ashes of his friend Melancthon, whose numerous and learned writings were the means of establishing the reformation in Germany. Tombs of
Luther and
Melancthon. The academy of Wittemberg used to testify its respect for that mild and sage reformer by a general mourning on the anniversary of his death.

A number of workmen in the neighbourhood of the town are employed in preparing colours, in making sugar from beetrave, and in different sulphuric acid works. Industry.

Linen and porcelain are the principal articles that are made at Bitterfeld on the left bank of the Mulda, and an extensive tract of country round Brehna is set apart for the culture of hops. Torgau on the left bank of the Elbe, has since the additions made to Prussia, become a strong place of great importance. A wooden bridge of 300 yards in length has been built across the Elbe; the number of inhabitants is not at present less than 7000, there are several churches, and in the largest is erected a monument to the memory of Catherine Bora, the wife of Luther. Other
towns. The neighbouring country is not uninteresting; Graditz and Doehlen are noted for their horses, and it was at the village of Elsnig that Frederick the Great defeated the Austrians on the third of November 1760. Tomb of
Catherine
Bora.

Naumburg is situated at the confluence of the Unstrut and the Saale; it is well built, and contains 9000 inhabitants. A supreme court of justice is held in the town, the other institutions are a commercial tribunal, a lyceum with a large and valuable library, a school for the children of burghesses, and another for the education of orphans. The two finest churches are those of the cathedral and Saint Wenceslaus; the first was built in 1027; the second is admired on account of its architecture and proportions. Naumburg.

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A fair, which commences on the fifth June, and lasts fifteen days, is held every year in the town, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in woollen stuffs. Naumburg is also a place of amusement, it is generally crowded in winter; during that season of the year, theatres are opened, concerts and mask balls are of frequent occurrence. The Eichof is the place to which merchants and strangers resort, and the Burgen Garten are the fashionable walks of the higher classes.

Hussites.

The inhabitants have not forgotten the war that their forefathers maintained against the Hussites. A deputation of young people entreated the general of these sectarians to save their town from destruction, moved by their tears or supplications, he granted their requests. A number of children walk in procession every year to commemorate his clemency. A letter is preserved in the townhouse, which was written by John Frederick the Magnanimous, elector of Saxony, that most zealous defender of Luther's reformation, who was defeated by Charles the Fifth at the battle of Muhlberg, on the twenty-fourth of April 1547, and afterwards conducted as a prisoner into Naumburg. The

**Enviroms of
Naum-
burg.**

neighbouring country is agreeable and fruitful; the grape is cultivated with success, the wine is not unlike and little inferior to Burgundy. The quantity consumed, exclusively of what is reserved for the distilleries, is very considerable. The town of Naumburg is visited by the strangers that go to the baths of Bibra, a watering place, that has been frequented since the year 1689.

**Banks of
the Saale.**

If we follow the course of the Saale, we remark on the left bank of that river, the small but well built town of Weissenfels, which contains about 5600 inhabitants; the greater number of them are employed in manufacturing linen, dressing leather, and making lace. The castle and the church are the only public buildings worthy of notice. A library has of late years been established for the use of the inhabitants; a normal school or seminary for the education of school masters is not well attended. It is perhaps unnecessary to mention that the floor of the council chamber is supposed to be stained with the blood

of Gustavus Adolphus; his body, it is certain, was opened there after the victory gained over Wallenstein in 1632, a victory too dearly purchased by the Swedes, for their king lost his life under the walls of Lutzen. The same place has since been the scene of a more important battle, gained by a more extraordinary conqueror. Napoleon defeated the Russian and Prussian armies on the second of May, 1813, near the village of Gross-Guerchin; in consequence of that engagement, almost all the houses of Lutzen were reduced to ashes. Prince Leopold of Hesse Homburg fell near the spot now occupied by the iron obelisk, which was erected by the King of Prussia to the memory of the young warrior.

Merseburg is situated on the banks of the Saale, at some distance below the last town. It is the chief place of a government, and contains upwards of 8800 inhabitants. It is adorned by many fine buildings, among others, the town-house, the palace of the count de Zach, the bridge over the Saale, and the cathedral, a Gothic edifice, flanked with four pyramidical turrets; in the interior of the church are several valuable pictures, and the bronze tomb of the emperor Rodolphus of Swabia. The library of the chapter is rich in manuscripts. The most important institutions are a college, an orphan hospital and a work-house. Merseburg possesses a flourishing trade; four different fairs are held in it every year, but the chief source of its wealth depends on its breweries, which are celebrated throughout Prussia; the quantity of beer annually consumed in the town and in different parts of the country, is not less than 27,000 tuns.

Many villas and country houses are built in the neighbourhood, the most remarkable places are the romantic lake of St. Gothard, Lauchstædt, which is celebrated on account of its mineral water, and Durenberg, equally known from its salt springs.

If the importance and population of a town were the only criterions of determining its political rank, Halle, which contains 24,000 inhabitants, and not Merseburg, ought to have been the metropolis of the government. The cathedral,

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Tomb of
Rodolphus
of Swabia.

Neighbour-
ing country.

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of which the tower is higher than 268 feet, the church of St. Ulric and its curious monuments, the townhouse where the ancient imperial constitution, known by the name of the Golden Bull, is preserved, are worthy of notice. But the celebrity of the town depends on other causes. Many distinguished men have been educated at its university, which was founded in 1694; the names of Wolf, Hoffmann, Balthazar, Bremer and Paul Herman, the most celebrated botanist of the seventeenth century, might be mentioned among the number of its professors. Not more than 600 students attend the college at present; but no branch of knowledge is neglected; there are schools of anatomy and surgery, lectures on mineralogy, chemistry, botany and astronomy, public libraries, the most valuable of which are those belonging to the university, and Saint Mary's church; and lastly, several collections of antiquities, and one of natural history. Different literary societies might be enumerated, and also a school for engineers, a seminary of theology and philosophy, and a biblical society. More than 1,800,000 Bibles, and more than 800,000 New Testaments have been printed and distributed in the course of a year. A Political Journal and the Universal Literary Gazette, which was formerly printed at Jena, are now published at Halle. Many orphans have been brought up in the hospital that was founded in 1698 by Dr. Franke; it is at present one of the most useful institutions in the town. The baths, at no great distance from the hospital, are visited by all the strangers that arrive at Halle. Concerts, balls and theatres are the amusements of winter, and the public walks in the neighbourhood are crowded in summer.

Mines of
rock salt.

Several mines of rock salt are worked within the territory, and the value of their annual produce is not less than 125,000 rixdollars, or L.18,750. The workmen that are employed in these mines are called *Hallores*, and they are the pure descendants of the ancient Wendes; they still retain the manners, language, laws, and even the costume of their ancestors.

Halle is also important from its numerous manufactures, BOOK
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It may be stated that the making of beetrave sugar has been found a very profitable employment. The ground round the town is well cultivated, and produces a variety of excellent vegetables, and almost every part of the country in the neighbourhood abounds with game.

Wettin, a small town of 2700 inhabitants, contains the Wettin.
ancient castle, that was formerly the residence of the Saxon princes. It is also the seat of a royal council of mines, and the coal that is obtained in its vicinity, furnishes employment to two hundred workmen. The village of Rothenburg, which is not very far from it, has been long celebrated for its copper mines, they produce annually 4400 hundredweights of that metal.

We may terminate our account of the government of Merseburg by making some general observations on the towns that have not been described. Eisleben, which is one of the most important, does not contain fewer than 6400 inhabitants. It is situated on a hill, and divided into the Old and New Town.

It is a place of great celebrity, not on account of the Luther.
churches of St. Andrew or St. Peter and their curious monuments, nor on account of its town-house, which is covered with copper, but from being the birthplace of Luther, and the place where that reformer acquired his title to immortality. Strangers may still observe in the church of St. Andrew, the pulpit from which the reformer menaced the Vatican; that pulpit is now only used three times a year, and on stated days; the veneration of which Luther has been the object, has consecrated the school that he attended, a school for the gratuitous education of orphans and indigent children. It has since been enriched and endowed by the Prussian government; the hat, the mantle and different relics of the German reformer are preserved in one of the rooms, and others are adorned with paintings, which represent the principal events connected with the reformation. Almost all strangers visit Luther's house on their arrival His House.

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at Eisleben, their names are inscribed in a book, which is kept for the purpose.

Heststaed.

Heststaed is a town of 3200 inhabitants; silver and copper are extracted from several mines in its vicinity, their weekly produce is estimated at 40 marks of silver, and 200 hundredweights of copper. The population of Zeitz was not supposed to be greater than that of Eisleben, but according to the calculation of M. Hassel, it cannot be less than 7000 souls.^a It is adorned by two castles, and among its institutions are a lyceum, a chapter, a normal school and an orphan hospital. The trade of the place consists in cloth, woollen stuffs, and metallic buttons, wax and tallow candles. Several curious and valuable manuscripts are contained in the library of the chapter, and the collegiate church is worthy of notice, not only from its architecture, but also on account of a fine picture above the altar.

Sangerhausen is a small town of nearly 4000 inhabitants, who are mostly employed in forging iron, founding copper, and making saltpetre. Stollberg is not nearly so large, it does not contain more than 2000 souls, but it is there that the counts of Stollberg hold their courts, and that a council or number of individuals to whom the management of the neighbouring mines is committed, assemble. A lyceum and an orphan hospital have been built in the town.

Querfurt, on the banks of the Querne, is not much more important, its population amounts only to 3000 inhabitants, it is the seat of a college, and in the neighbourhood of its ancient castle, cotton mills and saltpetre works have been erected.

Erfurt.

We have mentioned every place of any consequence in the government of Merseburg; that of Erfurt is not so large, indeed it is only necessary to give an account of four towns,—its capital, Nordhausen, Ellrich and Langensalza. Erfurt, which is peopled by 21,000 souls, was formerly an imperial city, and it continued independent long after the capitulation, by which its gates were opened to the French

^a Statistischer Umriss von G. Hassel.

on the fifteenth of October, 1806. Many of its houses and public buildings were destroyed during a bombardment in 1818, which it supported for more than a month. It has been affirmed that upwards of 2000 persons perished from the effects of epidemical diseases, which were at that time common both in Germany and in France. The town is defended by two strong citadels, but the only remarkable building is the cathedral, of which the bell weighs 27,000 pounds; it is considered one of the wonders of the country.

The stranger may still observe the bell in the ancient Luther's convent of the Augustines, which Luther inhabited during a period of seven years. There are not at present fewer than eight churches that adhere to the Augsburg confession. The celebrated university, which was instituted in 1392, and abolished in 1816, tended to diffuse a taste for literature and science among the inhabitants. The protestant gymnasium, the catholic seminary, the drawing academy and the schools of pharmacy and chemistry are well attended, the libraries and public collections are open to all the inhabitants. Erfurt still possesses its philosophical society; other institutions of the same kind might be enumerated. The theatre or the principal place of amusement is open the greater part of the year.

It was in the same town that Napoleon had an interview with the emperor of Russia, king of Prussia, and several German princes on the 27th of October, 1808. There are many public walks near the town, and the neighbouring country is fruitful and well cultivated. A colony of Moravian brothers have settled in the adjoining village of New Dietendorf. Different articles are manufactured at Erfurt; but it is difficult to account for the preference which the inhabitants have for the trade of a shoemaker, it is however certain that the number of master shoemakers is not less than three hundred.

Nordhausen on the banks of the Zorge, is a town of 10,400 inhabitants; its public buildings are nowise remarkable, they consist of seven churches, a gymnasium and a

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convent. The trade carried on by the inhabitants has been greatly improved, there are not fewer than 120 distilleries, in which more than 600,000 bushels of grain are consumed, while the draff serves to fatten 40,000 pigs and 6000 oxen. The produce of the oil mills brings about 150,000 rixdolars or L.18,750. The anniversary of Luther is observed as a holiday, and the different authorities walk in procession.

Elrick.

The population of Elrick amounts only to 2500 souls ; it is not a place of much trade, although it possesses several manufactories of cloth and woollen stuffs.

**Cavern of
Kelle.**

The cavern of Kelle in the neighbourhood has been much admired. It is not more than two miles and a half from the town, and he who visits it, must descend from its entrance to the depth of 150 feet below the surface of the ground ; the inner part of the cave is about ten feet lower. Its breadth is not less than 256 feet, and it is upwards of 268 in length. The waters of a fresh and limpid stream form a deep reservoir at a short distance from the entrance, and fine stalactites are seen on different parts of the walls.

Langensalza.

Langensalza was so called from the river Salze, near which it has been built, a place, now more remarkable for its industry and trade, the culture of the neighbouring country, and the labours of its agricultural society, than for its old castle, the church of St. Stephen, or its lyceum. The crevices with which the soil has been furrowed, became apparently broader on the 10th of June 1813, and the town was almost overturned ; all the gardens in the neighbourhood were destroyed, and more than a thousand acres of meadow land were inundated. The population in 1819, amounted to 6000 individuals. It appears too from a statistical account relative to the same year, that besides several manufactories of silk and serge, there were not fewer than 3000 cotton looms. The salutary effects of the sulphureous baths at Langensalza have been much commended, many strangers resort to them. The sources of these springs has been discovered at *Tennstadt* and at *Tonna*, which have since become well frequented watering places.

Fossil bones of elephants are often found near the last village. They are embedded in the alluvial deposits by which the soil is formed. The whole of the neighbouring country is very fruitful; the inhabitants cultivate anise, madder, and the *izatis tinctoria*, a plant useful in dying, and which has been supposed to be of a better quality than any produced in the rest of Germany.

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Remains of
Elephants.

Calcareous concretions are frequently observed in the alluvial sand at a short distance from Langensalza; a healing virtue was in former times attributed to them by the country people, it was imagined that they could consolidate fractured bones, and they were on that account called *osteocoles*.

The government of Magdeburg contains a greater number of important towns than both the two which have been last mentioned.

Quedlinburg on the Bude, which is one of the most populous, contains upwards of 12,000 inhabitants. The ancient castle still remains, where the sovereign abbess of the country used to reside, a princess, who notwithstanding the vows of humility attached to her holy profession, sat as a member of the empire beside the prelates from the states on the Rhine.

Quedlin-
burg.

The tombs of Henry the First and the empress Catherine may still be seen in the church of the castle. Several articles of great antiquity, and different relics of doubtful origin might also be enumerated, among others, one of the bottles that was supposed to have been used at the marriage feast of Cana in Galilee. The evidence on which the tradition rests, cannot now be determined, but it is certain that it was believed by the emperor Otho the Great, who gave the bottle or *amphora* to the monks. A curiosity of a different description has been placed in the large hall of the townhouse, it is an iron cage, in which a count of Reinslein, whom Otho the Great accused of treason, was confined. Quedlinburg boasts of having been the birthplace of the poet Klopstock.

Tomb of
Henry the
First.

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CXVII.****Wernigerode.**

Wernigerode is situated on the side of mount Brocken, at the elevation of 287 feet above the level of the sea. It possesses a gymnasium, a library of 80,000 volumes, among which there are not fewer than 2000 bibles, a museum of natural history, and a fine botanical garden. It contains a population of more than 4000 inhabitants, and its trade consists in corn, wood, iron and spirits which are distilled in the neighbourhood.

Halberstadt.

Halberstadt is, next to Magdeburg, the most important town in the government; its population amounts to 14,700 individuals, and in that number are included more than a hundred Jewish families. We might mention among its institutions, three public schools, a seminary for the education of schoolmasters, and a literary society of which the transactions are published. It is one of the gayest towns in the province, balls, concerts, assemblies and plays are the ordinary amusements. The grounds in the neighbourhood are laid out in public walks, that may vie with any in Saxony. The Spiegelberge or hills which the baron of Spiegel, to whom they belong, has covered with plantations, may be compared to an English garden possessing the most varied views; the wealthy proprietor, who has devoted his fortune to the embellishment of this public walk, may claim the gratitude of his fellow citizens.

Spiegelberge.**Gleim and the inventor of beer.**

Halberstadt has given birth to two men, whose reputation depends on very different titles, the first is Gleim, the celebrated poet and patriot, the second is Breyhahn, the supposed inventor of beer. Strangers seldom fail to visit the garden in which the ashes of the poet are deposited. An inscription on the house of the other, announces his invention, the value of which many are able to appreciate; but while the name of Gleim is repeated by all the admirers of German literature, that of Breyhahn is hardly known beyond the walls of his native town.

Kalbe, Barby.

The town of Kalbe on the banks of the Saale, contains, according to Stein, 5588 inhabitants, but that number has been reduced by Hassel to 4098. It is in other respects

not so worthy of notice as Barby, the population of which amounts only to 2800 souls. That small town on the banks of the Elbe, possesses an observatory, a collection of natural history, and a printing press. Ascherleben is a place of trade, its linen and woollen stuffs are exported, it is peopled by 8500 inhabitants. The vineyards in the circle of Merseburg occupy a space of 2923 acres, and their annual produce is not less than 17,500 eimers or 1,120,000 bottles of wine. BOOK
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Magdeburg is the most important place in the province of Saxony; it was formerly an imperial and Hanseatic town, and it contains at present a population of 36,600 inhabitants. It is situated on the banks of the Elbe, at the height of 234 feet above the level of the sea. The Elbe renders its means of defence more effectual, and a great part of it was destroyed in 1812, in order to extend its fortifications. The number of inhabitants in 1815, amounted only to 32,867; the rapid increase that has since taken place in the population, must be chiefly attributed to the blessings of peace. It is unnecessary to give a minute account of the public buildings, the most remarkable are the arsenal, a fine post-office, and a large custom-house. Some notice has already been taken of the numerous hospitals for the education of orphans in different parts of Prussia, that of Magdeburg is worthy of the capital. The cathedral may be mentioned on account of its portal, altar and baptismal founts, but the church of the garrison is more interesting from its antiquity, it was built in the year 1016. Public
buildings.

The dungeon into which General La Fayette was thrown, may be seen at Magdeburg; in that instance, it has been generally admitted, the law of nations was violated. The two finest squares in the town are those of the cathedral and the old market place, the latter is adorned with a statue of the emperor Otho the Great, and the side of the other is formed by the cathedral. Among the different useful institutions at Magdeburg, are a seminary for teaching school-masters, several schools, one of which is the provincial La Fayette's
dungeon.

BOOK school of arts, two commercial seminaries and a royal
CXVII. boarding-house for the education of girls.

Trade.

The trade of Magdeburg does not consist only in the sale of its woollen stuffs, linen, cotton and the produce of its different manufactories, its situation renders it the mart for the goods that pass from Germany to the north. The small town of Schönebeck is situated to the south of Magdeburg, it contains 4800 inhabitants, and it is noted for its salt springs, which produce annually 58,000,000 pounds of salt.

Burg, Stendal.

Burg is peopled by 10,000 inhabitants, who are mostly descended from Swiss and French Protestants, its trade consists principally in cloth; more than 8000 pieces are manufactured every year. Stendal, a town of 5500 inhabitants, is in other respects insignificant, but it has the honour of being the birthplace of the celebrated Winkelmann. Salzwedel on the Jeetze is the last town of any importance on the northern frontier of the province, its population amounts to 5800 souls; the produce of its manufactories is considerable, according to Stein, it exports every year 1065 pieces of cloth, and more than 89,000 yards of linen.^b

We have now given an account of the seven provinces, which form geographically the kingdom of Prussia, in other words a country of 4161 German square miles, or 49,932 English square miles in superficial extent; but Prussia comprehends politically the four provinces of Westphalia, Juliers, Cleves and Berg, and also the lower Rhine, and Neuchatel. These provinces, separated from the other Prussian dominions by Hesse, Brunswick and other principalities, and coterminous to Hanover, the Netherlands and France, may be considered temporary acquisitions, not gained on the field of battle, but ceded to Prussia by diplomatic arrangements. States not governed by the same laws, not participating in the same interest, have suddenly become Prussian. It would be incorrect therefore to iden-

^b Handbuch, der Geographie und Statistik.

tify them with the monarchy, they are rather military occupations or Prussian colonies. They shall be more fully mentioned in a different part of the work, in the account of Germany and the Germanic Confederation.

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It remains for us to state some facts connected with the statistics of the Prussian dominions. The population of these states follows as in the rest of Europe, an increasing progression. Ample data are not wanting to prove the truth of this statement, it is sufficient to illustrate it by two examples. The number of deaths in Berlin amounted in 1824 to 6336, and the number of births to 7531. The number of deaths in Königsberg during the same year was equal to 1986, and the number of births to 2391. It may be seen that the proportion in these two places is nearly the same. It is not however by examining the proportion that subsists between different towns that accurate information can be obtained on the subject, both because the unmarried persons, who reside in them, are more numerous than in the country, and also because the number of individuals that remain in them for a time, is not taken into consideration, and is often very different in different places. It is necessary therefore to determine the proportion as it subsists throughout the country, and it is not difficult to do so, for registers of births and deaths have been kept with great care during several years. It is only in this manner that a correct estimate can be formed of the increase in the population. According to the last census made in Prussia, the number of inhabitants throughout the whole country, amounted to 11,480,815. During a period of five years from 1816 to 1821, the number of deaths amounted to 1,823,511, and the births to 2,843,487. The excess was thus equal to 1,019,976, which indicates a much greater proportion than at Berlin or Königsberg. In the number of births are included 35,535 illegitimate children, or one out of every three hundred and twenty seven. In other European countries, the number is much more considerable.

As to the frequency of crimes, the different provinces

Crimes.

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CXVII.**

under the Prussian government furnish us with very different results. It appears that crimes are most rare in the protestant provinces, and most common in the catholic, in those where the numerous festivals and holidays of the Roman church are observed. It is certain besides that the most industrious countries are those in which there are fewest catholics. These observations are not confined to the lower orders that inhabit large towns, their baneful influence on the habits of the people is too well known. The researches of M. Kamps exhibit very curious results on these important questions.*

Murders.

It appears that one individual has been found guilty of murder out of every sixty thousand inhabitants in the territories of Aix-la-Chapelle, and Cologne; one out of every thirty-five thousand in the province of Saxony, and the country of Munster; one out of twenty-five thousand in the district of Marienwerder; one for every four thousand seven hundred and sixty in Pomerania, and lastly, one for every four hundred in the towns of Cologne, Munster, Dusseldorf and Aix-la-Chapelle.

Thefts.

As to the number of thefts and robberies, the following proportions have been observed; one person for every six thousand four hundred and thirty-two Pomeranians, one for every three thousand persons in western Prussia and Silesia or eastern Prussia, and one for every eight hundred in the neighbourhood of Coblenz and Treves, and lastly, one for every four hundred in Cologne, Dusseldorf, Munster and Aix-la-Chapelle.

Universities.

We have already had occasion to mention the universities of Berlin and Halle, and the number of students that attend them. The other collegiate towns in Prussia are Koenigsberg, Breslaw, Greipwalde, Bonn and Munster. The first was attended by three hundred and three students in 1824; the second by seven hundred and ten, the third by a hundred and twenty-seven, the fourth by five hundred and twenty-six, and the last by two hundred

* Annales sur l'Administration interieure de l'Etat.

and eighty-four. Foreigners made up nearly a half of the students in these different colleges. BOOK
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It ought to have been mentioned in the account of Berlin, that a saving-bank was established in that city in 1818; it would have been well, had all the other large towns in Prussia followed the example of the capital. That bank allowed four and a half per cent. on every deposit from a crown upwards. It began business in 1818 with a capital of 14,491 crowns, but from the confidence of the public, its capital increased rapidly, and amounted in 1824 to 685,742 crowns. Berlin sav-
ing bank.

The practice of insuring against fire has become very general of late years. Insurance offices have been for a long time established in Prussia, but the people neglected to avail themselves of the benefits which they afforded. Their advantages however are now acknowledged, and the sum for which the property in the province of Brandenburg was insured in 1824, amounted to 37,854,875 crowns. Assurances
against fire.

The trade of Prussia, and particularly that in grain, has of late years been much improved, and the cause must be assigned to the wise and enlightened measures of government by which freedom has been granted to every department of industry. It is to be regretted that the example given by Prussia has not been imitated by the German princes, and that laws are still in force, according to which, merchants who trade in corn are considered forestallers, and made liable to severe penalties. Government, by putting this trade on the same footing with others, does all it can to prevent the fatal effects of scarcity or famine, for in that branch of commerce, as in every other, competition is always advantageous to the consumer. The price of grain has been continually falling for some time past, and the landed proprietors attribute it to the policy of government, but it is rather owing to the increasing culture of the potatoe, which is now much used throughout the country, and also to the successive im- Commerce.

**BOOK
CXVII.**

provements in agriculture, to the division of many large estates, and, above all, to the difficulty of exportation, a difficulty that is rendered insurmountable by the line of foreign custom houses on the frontiers of Prussia. It is to be hoped that the time may soon come when governments, better informed as to their true interests, may discover the defects and even the absurdity of the present system of duties. The subject of the corn trade shall be more fully considered in the next chapter.

**Imports and
Exports.**

More enlightened than some European governments, Prussia extended its commercial relations with the new American republics, and that department of its trade has been constantly increasing for some years past. Prussia proper exported in 1825 to the American continent, different sorts of merchandise, of which the value was not less than 1,472,410 crowns, and the province on the banks of the Rhine sent in the same year, and to the same countries, goods amounting in value to 2,428,370 crowns. The commerce of its ports on the Baltic, has likewise been improved; not fewer than 1089 vessels entered the harbour of Memel in 1825, and more than 1115, out of which 974 were loaded with wood, sailed from it. In the course of the same year, 342 vessels entered the port of Pilau on the Frische Haf, and 285 sailed from it. The number that entered Stettin amounted to 490, and the vessels that left it to 446; 290 unloaded at Stralsund, and 385 set out from the same harbour; lastly, 587 arrived at Swinesmunde, and 602 departed from it.

Wool.

The wool trade must have been very flourishing during the same year, for according to the most accurate accounts, 114,626 hundredweights of raw, and 65,771 of dressed wool were exported from the land and maritime frontiers of Prussia.

**Sugar;
Coffee.**

Some notice has been already taken of the beetrave sugar works in the different towns, but the consumption of that article is so great, that the quantity imported annually amounts to 346,000 hundredweights, exclusively of what

is smuggled; which is not supposed to be less than 8000.^d BOOK
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Thus the annual allowance for every individual in the kingdom is upwards of three pounds and a half, which is greater in proportion than the quantity consumed by every individual in France. The importation of coffee is likewise very great, it is equal one year with another to 163,400 hundredweights.

^d Verhandl. des vereins zur Beförd. des Gewerblies, 1826.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE

KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA,

*According to the Census Published by M. HASSEL in 1819
and 1821 ; and according to other more recent Authorities.*

EASTERN PRUSSIA.

TWO GOVERNMENTS.

GOVERNMENT OF KÖNIGSBERG, divided into nineteen circles, of which the chief towns are Allenstein, Braunsberg, Fischhausen, Friedland, Gerdauen, Heiligenbeil, Heilsberg, Königsberg, Labiau, Memel, Morungen, Neidenburg, Ortelsburg, Osterode, Preussisch-Eilau, Preussisch-Holland, Rastenburg, Roessel, Welau.

	Population.	Surface in German Square Miles. *	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns 48 }	592,170	404,95	1462
Burghs 13 }			
Villages 3717 }			
Census of 1821	624,163	404,95	1542
Increase from 1819 to 1821 . .	31,993		80

NUMBER OF ACRES.

8,702,451. Under water 662,203.

* A German square mile is equal to nearly twelve English square miles.

Domestic Animals	{	Horses	171,601	BOOK CXVII.
		Oxen	295,906	
		Sheep	244,930	
		Goats	1,475	
		Pigs	180,171	

B. GOVERNMENT OF GUMBINNEN, divided into sixteen circles, of which the chief towns are Angerburg, Darkehmen, Gumbinnen, Goldap, Heidekrug, Insterburg, Johannisburg, Lötzen, Lyk, Neiderung, Oletzko, Pillkallen, Ragnit, Sensburg, Stallupöhnen, Tilsit.

	Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns	19		
Burghs	13		
Parishes	94		
Villages	2954		
Census of 1821	445,290	297,85	1495
Increase from 1819 to 1821	31,917		107

ACRES.

6,400,992. Under water 161,537.

Domestic Animals	{	Horses	145,961
		Oxen	237,480
		Sheep	210,108
		Goats	751
		Pigs	147,026

WESTERN PRUSSIA.

TWO GOVERNMENTS.

A. GOVERNMENT OF DANTZIC, divided into seven circles, of which the chief towns are Behrendt, Dantzic, Elbing, Karthaus, Marienburg, Neustadt, Stargardt.

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	Population.	Surface in Ger- man Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns . . . 11 }	265,582	150,89	1760
Burgs . . . 6 }			
Villages . . . 1875 }			
Census of 1821 . . .	283,002	150,89	1875
Increase from 1819 to 1821	17,420		115

ACRES.

8,242,708. Under water 99,126.

Domestic Animals	Horses . . .	45,275
	Oxen . . .	87,869
	Sheep . . .	109,901
	Goats . . .	953
	Pigs . . .	52,339

B. GOVERNMENT OF MARIENWERDER, divided into thirteen circles, of which the principal towns are, Deutsch-Krone, Flatow, Graudenz, Konitz, Kulm, Lœbau, Marienwerder, Rosenberg, Schlochau, Schwetz, Strasburg, Stuhm, Thorn.

	Population.	Surface in Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns . . . 45 }	367,495	315,06	1167
Burgs . . . 4 }			
Villages . . . 2078 }			
Census of 1821 . . .	392,255	315,06	1244
Increase from 1819 to 1821	24,760		77

NUMBER OF ACRES.

6,770,762.

Domestic Animals	Horses . . .	67,355
	Oxen . . .	165,251
	Sheep . . .	384,494
	Goats . . .	1,805
	Pigs . . .	100,539

GREAT DUCHY OF POSEN.

BOOK
CXVII.

TWO GOVERNMENTS.

A. GOVERNMENT OF POSEN, divided into seventeen circles, of which the chief towns are, Adelnau, Birnbaum, Bomst, Buk, Fraustadt, Kosten, Kröben, Krotoschin, Meseritz, Obernik, Pleschen, Posen, Samter, Schildberg, Schrimm, Schroda, Wreschen,

	Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns 94	604,612	327,42	1847
Burghs 3			
Villages 2,410			
Census of 1821	635,188	327,42	1943
Increase from 1819 to 1821	30,576		96

NUMBER OF ACRES.
7,036,373

Domestic Animals	{	Horses	52,264
		Oxen	204,834
		Sheep	600,471
		Goats	371
		Pigs	79,302

B. GOVERNMENT OF BROMBERG, divided into nine circles. Principal towns, Bromberg, Chodzesen, Gnesen, Inowratzlaw, Mogilno, Schubin, Tscharnikow, Wirsitz, Wongrowitz.

	Population.	Surface in German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns 54	270,360	211,07	1324
Burghs 2			
Villages 1250			
Census of 1821	297,399	211,07	1409
Increase from 1819 to 1821	27,039		85

NUMBER OF ACRES.
4,535,978

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Domestic Animals

Horses	.	.	.	33,700
Oxen	.	.	.	107,177
Sheep	.	.	.	333,163
Goats	.	.	.	1,143
Pigs	.	.	.	59,629

SILESIA.**THREE GOVERNMENTS.**

A. GOVERNMENT OF BRESLAU, divided into twenty-two circles. Principal towns, Breslau, Brieg, Frankenstein, Glatz, Guhrau, Habelschwert, Militsch, Munsterberg, Namslau, Neumarkt, Nimptsch, Ohlau, Oels, Reichenbach, Schweidnitz, Steinau, Strehlen, Striegau, Trebnitz, Waldenburg, Wartenberg, Wohlau.

	Population	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for each Square Mile.
Towns 55	833,253	247,41	3,368
Burghs 8			
Villages 2245			
Census of 1821	851,423	247,41	3,441
Increase from 1819 to 1821	18,170		73

NUMBER OF ACRES.

5,316,616

Domestic Animals	Horses	.	.	.	72,657
	Oxen	.	.	.	293,203
	Sheep	.	.	.	806,460
	Goats	.	.	.	7,856
	Pigs	.	.	.	34,097

B. GOVERNMENT OF OPPELIN, divided into sixteen circles. Principal towns, Beuthen, Falkenberg, Grofsstrehlitz, Grottkau, Kosel, Kreuzburg, Leobschütz, Lublinitz, Neisse, Neustadt, Oppeln, Plefs, Ratibor, Rosenberg, Rybnik, Tost.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns . . . 38	561,203	248,40	2,259
Burghs . . . 19			
Villages . . . 1,846			
Census for 1821 . . .	601,562	248,40	2,462
Increase from 1819 to 1821	40,359		203

NUMBER OF ACRES.

5,338,829

Domestic Animals	Horses	69,372
	Oxen	220,111
	Sheep	416,388
	Goats	920
	Pigs	54,459

C. GOVERNMENT OF LEIGNITZ, divided into eighteen circles. Principal towns, Bolkenhain, Bunzlau, Friestadt, Glogau, Goerlitz, Grünberg, Hainau-Goldberg, Hirschberg, Jauer, Landshut, Lauban, Liegnitz, Löwenberg, Lübben, Rothenbourg, Sagan, Schoenau, Sprottau.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for every Square Mile.
Towns . . . 45	667,133	224,49	2974
Burghs . . . 11			
Villages . . . 1685			
Census of 1821 . . .	685,049	224,49	3051
Increase from 1819 to 1821	17,916		77

NUMBER OF ACRES.

4,820,334

Domestic Animals	Horses	33,839
	Oxen	234,037
	Sheep	542,691
	Goats	11,467
	Pigs	9,005

PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

TWO GOVERNMENTS.

A. GOVERNMENT OF POTZDAM, divided into thirteen circles. Principal towns, Angermunde, Jüterbock-Luckenwalde, Niederbarnim, Oberbarnim, Osthavelland, Ostpriegnitz, Prenzlau, Ruppín, Teltow-Storkow, Templin Westhavelland, Westpriegnitz, Zaucha-Belzig.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants for each Square Mile.
Towns . . . 72	740,333	377,77	1950
Burghs . . . 13			
Villages . . . 1,319			
Census of 1821 . . .	748,027	377,77	1980
Increase from 1819 to 1821	7,694		30

NUMBER OF ACRES.

8,118,323

Domestic Animals	Horses . . .	96,701
	Oxen . . .	241,207
	Sheep . . .	908,574
	Goats . . .	5,761
	Pigs . . .	88,590

B. GOVERNMENT OF FRANKFORT ON THE ODER, divided into eighteen circles,—principal towns, Arenswalde, Frankfort, Friedeberg, Guben, Kalau, Kœnigsberg, Kottbus, Krossen, Küstrin, Landsberg, Lebus, Lubben, Luckau, Soldin, Sorau, Spremberg-Hoyerswerda, Sternberg, Züllichau.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns . . . 70	594,827	374,53	1601
Burghs, . . . 7			
Villages . . . 1699			
Census for 1821 . . .	615,831	374,53	1657
Increase from 1819 to 1821	21,004		56

NUMBER OF ACRES.

7,984,308.

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Domestic Animals	Horses	67,183
	Oxen	286,932
	Sheep	810,711
	Goats	2,801
	Pigs	74,041

POMERANIA.

THREE GOVERNMENTS.

A. GOVERNMENT OF STETTIN, divided into thirteen circles,—principal towns, Anklam, Demmin, Greiffenhagen, Greiffenberg, Kammin, Naugardt, Pyritz, Randow, Regenalde, Saazig, Stettin, Uckermunde, Usedom-Wollin.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns 35 }	341,041	233,13	1463
Burgs 5 }			
Villages 1500 }			
Census of 1821	358,974	233,13	1539.
Increase from 1819 to 1821	17,933		76

NUMBER OF ACRES.

5,010,027

Domestic Animals	Horses	54,992
	Oxen	172,470
	Sheep	570,186
	Goats	1,500
	Pigs	73,328

B. GOVERNMENT OF KOSLIN, divided into nine circles, Principal towns, Belgard, Dramburg, Furstenthum, Lauenburg-Bütow, Neustettin, Rummelsburg, Schiefelbein, Schlawe, Stolpe.

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		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to each Square Mile.
Towns . . .	23	255,265	258,49	987
Burghs . . .	5			
Villages . . .	1196			
Census of 1821 . . .		273,804	258,49	1059
Increase from 1819 to 1821		18,539		72

NUMBER OF ACRES. UNDER WATER.
5,555,093 59,470

Domestic Animals . . .	Horses . . .	42,111
	Oxen . . .	123,954
	Sheep . . .	363,791
	Goats . . .	1,558
	Pigs . . .	38,378

C. GOVERNMENT OF STRALSUND, divided into four circles.—Principal towns, Bergin, Franzburg, Greisswalde, Grimma.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns . . .	14	133,528	74,90	1783
Burghs . . .	3			
Villages . . .	347			
Census of 1821 . . .		135,425	74,90	1808
Increase from 1819 to 1821		1,897		25

NUMBER OF ACRES. UNDER WATER.
1,609,485 115,595

Domestic Animals . . .	Horses . . .	29,514
	Oxen . . .	88,504
	Sheep . . .	166,371
	Goats . . .	181
	Pigs . . .	25,530

PROVINCE OF SAXONY.

BOOK
CXVII.

THREE GOVERNMENTS.

A. GOVERNMENT OF MAGDEBURG, divided into fifteen circles. Principal towns, Aschersleben, Gardelegen, Halberstadt, Jerichow I., Jerichow II., Kalbe, Magdeburg, Neuhalbensleben, Oschersleben, Osterburg, Osterwiek, Salzwedel, Stendal, Wanzleben, Wolmirstedt.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns 50	486,000	204,70	2,374
Burgs 3			
Villages 917			
Hamlets and detached houses 580			
Census for 1821	493,560	204,70	2,411
Increase from 1819 to 1821	7,560		37

NUMBER OF ACRES. UNDER WATER.
4,396,149

Domestic Animals	Horses	65,804
	Oxen	155,528
	Sheep	687,249
	Goats	5,256
	Pigs	69,350

B. GOVERNMENT OF MERSEBURG, divided into sixteen circles. Principal towns, Bitterfeld, Delitsch, Eckartsberga, Halle, Liebenwerda, Mannsfeld-Gebirge, Merseburg, Naumburg, Querfurt, Saale, Sangerhausen, Schweinitz, Torgau, Weissenfels, Wittemberg, Zeitz.

	Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns 71	525,507	187	2,810
Burgs 9			
Villages and hamlets 1648			
Census for 1821	532,939	187	2,849
Increase from 1819 to 1821	7,432		39

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NUMBER OF ACRES.

4,018,808

Domestic Animals	Horses	.	.	.	50,647
	Oxen	.	.	.	200,808
	Sheep	.	.	.	677,425
	Goats	.	.	.	17,980
	Pigs	.	.	.	76,794

C. GOVERNMENT OF ERFURT, divided into nine circles.
Principal towns, Erfurt, Heiligenstadt, Langensalza,
Muhlhausen, Nordhausen, Schleusingen, Weissensee,
Worbis, Ziegenrück.

		Population.	German Square Miles.	Inhabitants to every Square Mile.
Towns	22	247,714	66,24	3,740
Burghs	14			
Villages	399			
Hamlets and detached houses	207			
Census for 1821	.	248,843	66,24	3,756
Increase from 1819 to 1821		1,129		16

NUMBER OF ACRES.

1,423,381

Domestic Animals	Horses	.	.	.	17,438
	Oxen	.	.	.	63,190
	Sheep	.	.	.	188,212
	Goats	.	.	.	10,948
	Pigs	.	.	.	26,786

*Number of Inhabitants according to the different nations
and sects to which they belong—Monasteries, Churches,
Universities, Schools.*

EASTERN PRUSSIA.

• *Different Nations.*

Germans	633,000
Lithuanians	350,000

Kourres or Courres, Lettons or Lettonians	20,000	BOOK
Jews	2,500	CXVII.

Different Sects.

Protestants	857,000.
Catholics	145,000
Mennonites	850
Socinians	150
Jews	2,500

Parishes and Churches.

Lutheran Parishes, (according to the confession of Augsburg)	384
Calvinistic Parishes	18
Catholic Parishes	80
Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	554

Places of Education.

Universities	1
Gymnasias	14
Different Seminaries	69
Schools	1937

WESTERN PRUSSIA.

Germans	293,000
Poles	327,300
Jews	12,600

Different Sects.

Protestants	312,000
Catholics	295,700
Mennonites	12,600
Jews	12,700

Monasteries.

Convents for Men	19
Convents for Women	9

Churches.

Catholic Churches	571
Lutheran Churches	248
Calvinistic Churches	8
Assemblies of the Mennonite Communion	18

Places of Education.

Catholic Colleges	
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BOOK	Catholic Gymnasia	9
CXVII	Catholic Seminary	1
	Protestant Gymnasia	4
	Normal Schools	1

GREAT DUTCHY OF POSEN.

Different Nations.

Germans	155,000
Poles	670,000
Jews	49,900

Different Sects.

Lutherans	258,500
Reformists or Calvinists	3,900
Catholics	562,000
Mennonites	28
Greeks	572
Jews	49,900

Monasteries.

Convents for Men	47
Convents for Women	10

Churches.

Catholic Churches	581
Greek Churches	1
Calvinistic or Reformed Churches	10
Lutheran Churches	111

SILESIA.

Different Nations.

Germans	1,600,000
Poles	416,000
Wendes	24,500
Bohemians or Czeches (Tcheken)	4,500
Jews	16,600

Different Sects.

Protestants and Reformists	1,150,500
Catholics	894,270
Mennonites	230
Jews	16,600

Monasteries.

Convents for men	3	BOOK
Convents for women	3	CKVII.

Churches.

Lutheran	625
Reformed	9
Catholic Churches in three dioceses	1378
Chapels visited by Pilgrims	7

*Places of Education.**Catholic Seminaries.*

University	1
Gymnasias	8
Seminaries	1

Lutheran and Reformed.

Lutheran Gymnasias	10
Reformed	1
Normal Schools	13

Jewish.

Schools	2
Military Schools	1
Boarding Schools for girls	4
Public and Private Schools	3500

PROVINCE OF BRANDENBURG.

Different Nations.

Germans	1,262,000
Wendes	68,000
French and Walloons	6,500
Jews	8,500

Different Worships.

Protestants	1,306,190
Catholics	20,000
Mennonites	310
Jews	8,500

Churches.

Lutheran	1,216
Calvinistic	37

BOOK	French Reformed	30
CXVII.	Different Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	2181

POMERANIA.
Different Inhabitants.

Germans	640,000
Wendes that have retained their dialect	36,800
Jews	3,000

Different Worships.

Protestants	710,000
Catholics	6,798
Mennonites	2
Jews	3,000

Churches and Parishes.

Lutheran Parishes	519
Calvinistic or Reformed Parishes	7
Catholic Parishes	8
Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	1,357

PROVINCE OF SAXONY.
Different Inhabitants.

Germans, together with some inhabitants of French extraction, who have long since forgotten their native language	1,255,980
Jews	3,240

Different Worships.

Protestants	1,167,976
Catholics	88,000
Mennonites	4
Jews	3240

Churches.

Churches, Chapels and Synagogues	2,776
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Places of Education.

Universities	8
Professors	64
Students	1,554
Academies	16
Teachers	27

DESCRIPTION OF GERMANY.

145

Scholars	875	BOOK CXVII.
Public Schools	89	
Teachers	141	
Scholars	8032	
Elementary Private Schools	51	
Teachers	74	
Scholars	1019	
Elementary Public Schools	1,036	
Teachers	1,120	
Scholars	66,944	

PRUSSIAN ARMY IN 1821.

Royal Guard	.	.	.	17,908 men		
Infantry of the Line	.	.	.	104,712		
Cavalry	.	.	.	19,132		
Artillery	.	.	.	15,718		
Gendarmes	.	.	.	7,050		
			Total	164,500	} 523,768	
Landwehr	.	.	.	359,248		
Officers	{	Generals	.	.	82	} 7,405
		Colonels	.	.	21	
		Lieutenant-Colonels	.	.	247	
		Majors	.	.	655	
		Captains	.	.	1675	
		Lieutenants	.	.	1,370	
		Sub-Lieutenants	.	.	3,355	
			Sum Total		531,173	

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE IN 1821.

	<i>Revenue.</i>	
Domains and Forests	8,406,975 florins.	
Sale of Domains	1,500,000	
Mines, Iron, Copper, Salt, Porcelain, and Earth- en Works	858,000	
Post Office	1,200,000	
Lotteries	761,700	
Monopoly on Salt	5,700,000	
Contributions	53,786,775	
Extraordinary receipts	2,786,550	
	Total	75,000,000

BOOK
CXVII.*Expenditure.*

Administration of Foreign affairs	900,000 florins
Church Establishment	3,000,000
Administration of Justice	2,580,000
of the interior, Police, &c.	3,450,450
Commerce	2,361,000
War department	34,206,450
Financial department	400,150
Treasury	1,739,625
Interest on the National debt	15,222,500
Pensions	4,050,000
Expenses of the Home Department	3,750,000
Various extraordinary Expenses	3,339,825

Total, 75,000,000

The national debt amounts to 412,500,000 florins, part of it is redeemed every year.

Note.—A florin is equal in value to two shillings.

.BOOK CXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Agricultural Produce of the Maritime Provinces in Prussia—Peasants—Mortgages—Landed Estates—Method of Husbandry—Restrictions on the Foreign Corn-trade—Depreciation of Landed Property.

THE information contained in this chapter, has been wholly derived from the reports of Mr. Jacob, a late and very BOOK
CXVIII. intelligent writer on the agriculture of Prussia.

The observations of Mr. Jacob are confined to the three Maritime
provinces. maritime provinces. As it was the special object of his instructions to inquire into the state of the countries from which corn had been exported to England, his attention was chiefly directed to the state of these provinces, and also, but in a less degree, to that of Brandenburg. The three provinces, which communicate with the Baltic sea, and which, since the conventional partitions at the end of the last war, form part of the Prussian dominions, are West Prussia, East Prussia and Pomerania. All of them, as has been already remarked, are a portion of that vast and sandy plain, which extends from the shores of Holland to the extremity of Asiatic Russia. The heights are too insignificant to merit the appellation of hills, and such places as are not covered with wood, are large and open plains. The soil in some places consists of barren sand, exhibiting no appearance of vegetation, in many parts no attempt at cultivation, and what is cultivated seems to yield but scanty returns. It is

BOOK, not then extraordinary that the landed property in these
CXVI.f. provinces should have fallen so much in value, both because they cannot be compared with the other parts of the Prussian monarchy, where the soil and climate are much more favourable to production; and because it is an admitted truth, and one on which Mr. Jacob insists, that under a great depreciation in the price of corn, the poorer lands are subject to a greater proportionate fall in their sale price than the more fertile soils.

**Grain ex-
ported.**

It appears from official accounts that 447,183 quarters of wheat, and 1,218,916 quarters of rye, barley and oats, have been exported from them, independently of their own produce during the nine years previous to the end of 1824. It ought also to be mentioned that the returns are wanting for East Prussia in 1818, but it is probable they were not more than 350,000 quarters of wheat, and 340,000 of other grains.

It is likely that some portion of the quantity may have been produced in the inland and contiguous provinces of Posen, Silesia, and Brandenburg, for the trade in corn between one province and another is free in Prussia, and because no official accounts are kept from which it can be ascertained whether what is exported by sea is the produce of the province from which it is shipped.

**Landed es-
tates.**

It has already been remarked that the landed estates in Prussia, as well as in some other parts of Europe, remained until a recent period in the possession of large proprietors. The plebeian who had acquired a fortune by his own exertions in any department of industry, whatever wealth he might have amassed, could not invest it in land until he had been ennobled. It was only in the year 1811 that these restrictions were removed when the French had invaded and conquered the country.

Peasantry.

It appears from other writings, as well as from Mr. Jacob's report, that a tenantry, in the sense of the term as it is used in some countries, is still almost unknown. The land, it may be repeated, was worked by a class of persons in some respects slaves, in reality but little removed from that condition.

It is certain however that they had in many cases a kind of hereditary right to some use of the land, such as to grow one crop of corn according to a prescribed course, whilst the lord or proprietor had the right of pasture between the crops. They could not on the other hand be dismissed from their holdings, nor had the superior any right over the property, which they might be able to accumulate. The conditions upon which the peasants held their portions of land, were very various, some having a greater, and others a less share in the use of them, some performing greater, and others less service for them.^a

By a series of legislative measures, that were passed between the years 1807 and 1811, servitude was abolished; all the once enslaved peasants are now changed into free-men and freeholders. The lands allotted to the peasant-ry were divided according to the proprietor's claims for personal services, in some few instances, they have been equally portioned, the peasant possessing his moiety in perpetuity; on the other hand, if the lord's claims were less limited, the peasant had a smaller share in the land. Examples are not wanting in which compensations in money were settled by agreement between the nobles and the peasants. These bargains were concluded in different ways, sometimes by the payment of a fixed sum, or more frequently by security over the land granted to the new proprietor. Some of the peasants retained all the land that they had formerly used, by purchasing that portion from their lords, to which they were not entitled by the new enactments.

Different opinions were entertained as to the policy of liberating the husbandmen, and of the laws in their favour. Many believed their condition was rendered worse, others affirmed that freedom could be of little use to that class of the community, but, on the contrary, might deprive them of many advantages which they formerly enjoyed. While the lords were compelled to obey the laws, the peasants

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Liberation
of the Pea-
santry.

Lands be-
longing to
the Peasant-

Opinions
concerning
the new en-
actments.

^a Jacob's Report, page 29.

BOOK were allowed the liberty of choice, and even now some prefer
CXVII. their ancient servitude to present liberty.

It is not to be doubted that these enactments form the commencement of a new and better system, at the same time, it must exist longer than it has done, before the improvement can be effected. The peasants passed from a state of slavery to freedom, the nobles were before entitled to their services, and these services were as much their property as any part of their estates; but as the relation between a lord and his slave is very different from that between an ordinary master and his hired servant, some time must elapse, before both parties can be accustomed to the change, although its beneficial effects must one day be apparent.

The above remarks are confirmed by the observations of Mr. Jacob. "It is obvious," says he, "that all the operations of agriculture are still performed with a listlessness and slovenly indolence, which was natural to the former character of the labourers, and which their new condition has not yet had time to remove.

The labourers who can now acquire land by the abolition of ancient feudal tenures, although placed above the pressure of want, or possessing the bare necessities of life, have very little beyond them. Such as are industrious and frugal, by cultivating their small portion of ground, may raise a sufficient quantity of potatoes for their own consumption, corn for their bread, and provisions for two draught oxen. They all raise a small quantity of flax, and some few contrive to keep five or six sheep. It is often no easy matter for those to find occupation, who are desirous of other employment in addition to the cultivation of their own land, for no agricultural labour can be carried on during the long and severe winters. The flax and the wool spun in the cottage, supply the family with clothing, and the fat of the animals that are killed, are converted into soap and candles. It is rare indeed that the inmates can afford to have meat of any kind, and those only, who are more prosper-

ous than their neighbours can keep a cow to provide themselves with milk. BOOK
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Thus whatever is produced, is consumed by the family, and it is fortunate if at the end of the year, a few shillings can be saved to meet the demands of the tax-gatherer, or to pay local assessments. It is the opinion, says Mr. Jacob, of all with whom I conversed on the subject, that this class of men are at present in a worse condition than under the old tenures, and as it was attributed to the depression of agriculture, the want of capital, and the little encouragement given to the great landed proprietors, those who had been favourable to the new enactments, were not blamed, nor was that wisdom called in question by which the emancipation of the peasantry was planned and executed.

The rate of wages is very low, it is certain that it does ^{Wages} not average more, if so much, as fivepence a-day, yet the condition of a labourer in constant employment, with a cottage and potatoe ground, is admitted to be much superior to that of the peasant, who was recently raised from a state of feudal vassalage to freedom. The labourers that are boarded in the houses of their masters, have a sufficient quantity of coarse food, such as rye bread, potatoes and buck wheat, and sometimes, though rarely, animal food.

It was not before the abolition of the feudal tenures that it was found necessary to relieve the aged and infirm poor. It had been in past times, the duty of every noble to supply the wants of his peasants, if they were worn out by age or sickness, and if their relatives were unable to afford them any assistance. A regular system of taxation for the poor has not yet been introduced, but the first steps towards it have been already taken; assessments too are levied for the widows and children of the men who fell in the late conflicts, as well as for such as were disabled in the service.^b

It is calculated that four-fifths of the inhabitants in these provinces subsist wholly by producing food. The luxuries

^b Jacob's Report, p. 45.

BOOK they-enjoy must therefore depend on the price given for
CXVIII. the surplus produce, but that price has been constantly falling of late years, and consequently the comforts and conveniences of the people must be proportionally affected; in other words, their manner of life must be regulated by what is exchanged for the produce of their industry. If that rule be adopted, it follows that many individuals in these countries can command little if anything beyond the mere necessities of existence.

Division of The land is divided among two classes, the nobles and
land. the new proprietors of large estates, the rest is parcelled into small portions, such as under the ancient system, were thought adequate for half the maintenance of a labourer's family. The absence of a middle class between the peasants and the landlords is to be regretted. Mr. Jacob looked in vain for that class of farmers, so common in his own country, with sufficient capital to enable them to farm such an extent of land, as an able man can most advantageously manage, and after stocking and working it, pay rent to the proprietor. With very few exceptions no rent is paid, and almost every proprietor, whether a large or a small one, cultivates his own land.

The exceptions to the general rule are mostly to be observed on the banks of large rivers, or in the neighbourhood of cities; meadows and pasture lands are there set apart for feeding cattle, or hay is grown for the supply of the towns. Some meadows on the banks of the Oder near Stettin, which are let for fifteen or twenty shillings an acre are said to yield, when mowed, about two tons of hay. The after-feed, as may be easily supposed, is worth little, and the cause is to be attributed to the nature of the climate, the great rains in autumn, and the early and severe frosts in winter. Land of this description is of less relative value than in France or England, from the severe cold and long duration of winter, the want of spring, the drought and excessive heat of summer.^c If a moneyed rent is paid for such

^c Jacob's First Report, p. 31.

land, it is owing to its local advantages, and its extent, **BOOK**
it is obvious, is very inconsiderable, when compared with **CXVIII.**
the land that is cultivated by proprietors.

The crown domains, of which some account has been al- ^{Crown}
ready given, ought not to be confounded with the other ^{lands.}
estates. The most of them were possessed by persons
whose ancestors had held them from the crown at low
rents, and who were exempt from the land tax or *Grund*
Steuer. According to the new laws, not only the estates
of nobles, but those of the crown are subject to the land
tax. It appears too that when these laws were passed, the
high price given for corn, enabled the tenants of the crown
to pay their trifling, almost nominal rent, as well as the
land tax. At no distant period afterwards, the price of
corn fell, and the tenants were unable to pay both the one
and the other. The exigencies of the state rendered it
imperative that the taxes should be levied, and the rents
were consequently suffered to run in arrear, as it was im-
possible to obtain it from the tenants. It was proved not
only by those with whom Mr. Jacob conversed, intelligent
men, possessed of ample means of information on the sub-
ject, but also by different documents, which the same wri-
ter has collected, that by far the greater number of the
tenants on the royal domains, whose rents had run ten
years in arrear, were forgiven the whole, and the mutual
obligations cancelled on their promising to pay regularly
in future,—a promise, it is believed, they are unable
to fulfil, from the great and additional fall that has since
taken place in the price of corn.

It is difficult to estimate the average rent of the royal ^{Average}
domains; the qualities of the soil are so various, and the ^{rent of the}
localities so different, relatively to their advantages, that it ^{royal do-}
^{maine.}
is almost impossible to arrive at a correct approximation.
One farm, that is considered fair average land, consists of
1720 acres, and is let at the annual rent of L.158, 12s. 7d.
Another, supposed to consist of the best soil, and equal in
extent to 3054 acres, is let for L.552, 11s. 8d. Other farms
are let as high as three shillings and eightpence per acre,

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a much larger proportion at one shilling and twopence, and a greater still at eightpence or ninepence.

The extent of the royal domains in West Prussia bears but a very small proportion to that of the other lands, certainly not more, if so much as a sixtieth part.

Mortgages. Most of the estates belonging formerly to the nobles, and only capable of being possessed by that body, might be considered inalienable. The necessity of relieving the embarrassed proprietors, led government, to devise a plan by which money could be borrowed on the security of land, and the privilege which was at first confined to the estates of the nobility, was afterwards extended to other landed property.

Landschaft. The *Landschaft*, a local assembly consisting of the principal proprietors, were instructed to make a valuation of the estates that were to be mortgaged, and to issue *pfandbriefe* or mortgage debentures, bearing interest, and transferable with little trouble and expense; on such securities one half, and in some instances six-tenths of the *landschaft's* valuation was easily borrowed. The lands indeed were valued upon a low scale of the prices of produce, and upon a low estimate of the quantity of produce that might be raised on them. As there were no government funds in the country, or at all events none in which the public had much confidence, it was natural to expect that such sums as were not intended to be exposed to the fluctuations of commerce would be deposited in the new securities, and indeed the fortunes of widows and orphans, the capitals of churches, schools, hospitals and other benevolent institutions were invested in them. The valuations were made in 1794, and as the price of produce rose gradually, the debt was not considered burdensome, and the interest was regularly paid by the different proprietors; so great was the confidence in the security, that these debentures were frequently sold at a premium of ten per cent.

Encumbered
estates.

But for the last ten years the price of every kind of corn except wheat, the one that is least cultivated, has fallen below that at which the valuation was made in 1794.

and during the same period, the price of labour has risen, and additional taxes have been levied. Hence it happens that many proprietors, who for the first twenty years could easily discharge the demands on their estates, are now unable to do so.

It appears indeed that out of 262 estates subject to the Landschaft's jurisdiction, 195 are encumbered, whilst 67 only are free from encumbrances. Of the 195 estates, 71 were afterwards put into a state of sequestration, a remedy to which the mortgagees never have recourse but in cases of extremity. It is certain too that many other estates have been suffered to remain in the hands of the nominal proprietors, because the interest of the money lent on them ceases as soon as the process of sequestration is commenced, and because they cannot be sold for the sum that has been advanced on them. It is also well known that the sequestered estates are very carelessly managed by the officers of government.

It may be inferred from what has been already mentioned, ^{Low value of land.} that the price of land is at present very low in the maritime provinces. It is stated that an estate of medium soil was put up to auction, and not bringing an offer equal to the sum mortgaged, was purchased by the mortgagee. The extent was about 4200 English acres, the soil light and sandy, and, in some places, approaching to loam. The principal and interest due to the mortgagee amounted to L.3000, for which sum the property was sold. Another estate, one of the best in the district, with all the buildings in good repair, and the land in a high state of cultivation, was exposed to sale, and purchased for L.5200. The soil is of a good sandy loam, and the extent not less than 2800 acres.

These two instances are mentioned in Mr. Jacob's re. Live Stock. port, to show the highest and the lowest prices given for average arable land in these provinces. It may be concluded, then, that the highest price is less than forty shillings an acre, and the lowest nearly equal to fifteen.

It may be seen from official documents, that the pro-

BOOK vinces of East Prussia, West Prussia, and Pomerania, the
CXVIII. latter including the late Swedish territory of the same name, contain about 25,500,000 acres, or more than half the extent of England. It appears, also, from an official account published in the year 1821, that the stock of cattle were as follow, at the end of 1819.

556,839 horses and colts.
 1,171,434 oxen, cows, and calves.
 2,049,801 sheep and lambs.
 617,310 swine.

According to the lowest estimate relative to the stock of cattle in England, there are more than three times the number of horses, and upwards of four times the number of oxen and sheep in the same extent of land. Several authors, who have written on English statistics, suppose that the proportion of cattle to surface is much greater in England. It is probable, however, that the sheep have increased in the Prussian provinces between the years 1819 and 1824 at the rate of twenty-five per-cent. and that the finer sort of sheep have increased in a still greater ratio. It is evident, however, that the number of cattle of every description, is too inconsiderable to produce such a quantity of that necessary ingredient in husbandry, as to keep the land above its present standard of fertility; and it is also obvious that, owing to the deficient stock of the animals, from which manure is obtained, the increase of grain cannot be great. I was satisfied, adds Mr. Jacob, from my own observations, and it was strengthened by the opinion of intelligent natives, with whom I conversed, that much of the land in cultivation could not yield on an average more than three times as much corn as the seed that had been put into the ground.

If it were necessary that the above statement should be still further confirmed, it might be shown, that the latest and most approved statistical writers do not consider the

average returns of all the four kinds of grain, or wheat, barley, rye and oats, to be more than four times the seed. BOOK
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The general course of cultivation is to fallow every third year, by ploughing three times, if intended for rye, and five times for wheat; the land being allowed to rest the whole of the year, from one autumn to another. It is admitted, that a great portion of the soil is supposed to be unfit for the growth of wheat; the part which is adapted for that grain is sown with it, if a sufficient quantity of manure can be obtained, and the remainder of the fallow ground with rye. The extent of the land sown with wheat, is thus very small; according to the opinion of many, it does not amount to one tenth of that on which rye is grown. The last grain is an article of domestic consumption and general demand. The great majority of the inhabitants cannot afford to eat wheaten bread, and the few that can do so, commonly eat rye from choice. If there be no foreign demand for wheat, the difficulty of selling it at any price, is very great, and the little, which the limited demand of other countries has of late years required, is only confined to wheat of the best quality. Rye, on the other hand, may be always sold at a market price, which has never been in proportion so much depressed as that of wheat. The increase of wheat, it may be urged, is greater than that of rye, but as it exhausts all the manure of the farm, and as the land requires two additional ploughings, many farmers consider it not so profitable a crop as the other. The rye, too, receives the full benefit of the fallow, and its increase is greater than that of the spring crops, which succeed it.

After the wheat or rye is harvested, oats or barley are sown in the succeeding spring. This rotation completes the course, which is again succeeded by a whole year's fallow, so that the land only bears corn two years out of every three, and the soil is so poor, that the last crop is considered a good one, if it yields three times the seed.

The implements of husbandry correspond with the state of agriculture, and the nature of the soil. The land is so light that it may be easily ploughed by two small and Implements
of Hus-
bandry.

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weak oxen. Travellers have not unfrequently observed on the lands of the peasantry, a single cow attached to the plough, and while the plough was guided by the owner, the cow was led by his wife. The more tenacious soils, it is true, require a greater number of oxen; and there is an extensive tract of land in the Delta formed by the Nogat and the Vistula, between Derschau and Marienburgh, which, under a good system of agriculture, might be highly productive. Other districts of the same description might be enumerated, but all of them are inconsiderable, when compared with the surface of the country. The ploughs are all constructed with very little iron in them. The harrows are made of wood, and the teeth are of the same materials, no iron can be observed in any part of them. The waggons are mere planks laid loose on the frame, and supported on pieces of timber fixed into the sides. The cattle are attached to them by ropes, leather harness is nowhere to be seen. The use of the roller is unknown, and, in preparing the fallow ground, the clods are broken to pieces with wooden mallets.^a

**Value of
Live Stock.**

The monied value of the live stock on the farms is low. The best flocks of Merino sheep, exclusive of the wool, do not bring more than six shillings or six shillings and eightpence a head. Cows are worth from thirty to sixty-five shillings. The variation in the price of cows is much greater than in that of sheep; and it depends on their breed, the soil on which they are pastured, and the distance from towns requiring supplies of milk and butter. The price of hay varies according to the situation and quality from fourteen to twenty shillings the ton.

A nobleman whose hospitality Mr. Jacob commends, farmed his own estate of 26,000 acres. Two-thirds of it are arable, and the remaining part woodland. That individual grew only a few acres of wheat, and of late had sold no corn of any kind. As the ports of England were shut against corn, his attention was directed to raising fine wool.

^a Jacob's Report, p. 47.

He kept on his estate a flock of 15,000 Merino sheep, yielding on an average two and a half pounds of fine wool, of which the annual sales amounted to one-half more than the value of the sheep. During the five winter months, the sheep were fed with corn, mostly rye, at the rate of one pound per day, which was estimated to be equal to three pounds of hay. The proprietor believed that sheep thus kept, afforded nearly as much more wool, which, added to the benefit that the manure received from that kind of food, was equal to the price he should have received for the corn, if he had sold it; and the profit of his system consisted in the value of the whole stock of his hay, which must have otherwise been consumed. Instead of selling, he found it more profitable to purchase corn.

A distillery is an indispensable adjunct to every well managed farm. It is maintained in the country that two bushels of potatoes yield as much ardent spirits as one of barley. The residuum is supposed to be equivalent as nourishment for the draft bullocks that are fed with it, to two-thirds of the quantity before the wort is extracted. According to the process, nine bushels of potatoes are mixed with one of malt to draw the wort, which is afterwards distilled so as to produce a spirit containing eighty per cent. of alcohol; in this state a duty is exacted, that is considered a very grievous one, of sixpence per gallon. Before it is sold, it is reduced to fifty per cent., and the price charged to the retailers is about fourteenpence a gallon.

Potatoes are cultivated to a great extent, and by converting them into starch and treacle, that land is made to yield a profit, which might otherwise have produced a loss. One proprietor tried to make sugar from potatoes, but did not find it advantageous, he converted them however into treacle, which he could afford to sell at eighteen shillings per cwt. while that from the West Indies cost twenty-four. This treacle, says Mr. Jacob, appeared to me as sweet as any from the tropics, the only perceptible difference between them, was that it had less consistence.

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Spirits from
potatoes.

BOOK The different taxes, in as much as they affect the land-
CXVIII. ed proprietor or farmer, may be shortly mentioned.
Taxes.

The land is divided into six sorts, the rent of the lowest is valued about sevenpence, and that of the highest at nearly four shillings an acre. The land tax or Grund Steuer amounts to twenty-five per cent. on these valuations, or to a fourth part of the estimated rents. It averages something less than threepence an acre, and, according to Hassel, the whole sum collected in the three provinces, is about L.265,000.

The other taxes are not exclusively borne by the proprietors; that for disabled soldiers and the widows and orphans of those who fell in battle, are partly collected in the towns and burghs, but the great burden falls upon the land. The same remark is applicable to the taxes for roads, bridges, schools and the poor. They are very different in different districts; in some parts of the country, the local taxes are equal to the Grund Steuer, in some they are greater, and in others they are less, not amounting to a tenth part of it.

The cultivators complain greatly of the heavy tax on distilleries. But it is doubtful if the effect of the tax tends to diminish the consumption of the grain, from which spirits may be extracted. It is not unreasonable to suppose from the mode in which the tax is levied, that the landlords are benefited by it; for those who have distilleries on their estates, pay the duty on very strong spirits, and sell it to the retailers after it has been reduced.

The other taxes bear no more on those engaged in agriculture, than on the other members of the community. They are chiefly imposed on the consumption of foreign commodities, and paid by the consumers, from whatever source they may draw the revenue, from which they are enabled to indulge in the use of them.

If the public burdens be estimated by the number of inhabitants, it is calculated that each individual in these provinces pays about ten shillings annually in the form of taxes.

It has been attempted of late years to establish manufacturing factories in the maritime provinces; the chief inducement was the cheapness of provisions, and consequently the low price of labour. These attempts however have been made on a small scale, and they have not hitherto been attended with success; but it is not very improbable, if the restrictive system continue, that a new branch of industry may in time be created, for which the nature and situation of the country, as well as the habits of the people are ill adapted.

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We shall conclude these remarks by quoting part of a memoir, that has been extensively circulated among the land-owners in Prussia.

“The prevailing opinion that the production of corn in all countries greatly exceeds the consumption, or that immense quantities are hoarded up in different granaries, is altogether erroneous. The notion of a vast abundance is imaginary for the following reasons:

“1. Because agriculture has been extended in those countries, which obtained formerly from the north the deficiency required for the subsistence of their inhabitants, and of late years several harvests have been rich and abundant.

“2. Because the corn traders in the corn countries have almost ceased to exist in that capacity; and the few that remain, are anxious to dispose of their stock, and have their corn partly stored in foreign countries.

“3. The quantities in the hands of the farmers are very insignificant. The stock hoarded up formerly by the corn traders and farmers, was much greater, perhaps five times as much as it is at present. The impoverished condition to which the great corn factors in all the northern sea-ports have been reduced, and the scarcity of money with almost all the farmers, has rendered the accumulation of large quantities of corn, impossible; and besides, the bad quality of the grain for some years past, did not even allow it. It is a difficult task, nay perhaps impracticable to give an ac-

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curate estimate of the surplus quantities of corn in all the countries of Europe. But according to a calculation which seems not widely distant from the truth, the grain accumulated in Europe, including wheat, rye, barley and oats, amounts to three millions six hundred and eighty thousand quarters; namely,

	Quarters.
In Germany, exclusive of the Prussian dominions	581,000
Prussian dominions	775,000
Poland and Russia	581,000
Denmark	194,000
England	580,000
The Netherlands	888,000
France, Spain, Portugal and the Ports of the Black Sea	581,000
	3,680,000

"The bonded corn in England, which amounts to about four hundred thousand quarters, is included in this statement. All these quantities, however, are insufficient to supply a great deficiency in the crop of one large country, nor does it even amount to a fourth part of what is necessary for the subsistence of its inhabitants. That the above mentioned surplus may hereafter be increased, is indeed very improbable, for the consumption of men and cattle is annually increasing, while the production of corn is diminishing. The corn at present under bond in England, is not equal to the thirtieth part of its annual consumption, and the whole surplus quantity in Europe, is not sufficient to supply the inhabitants of France with bread for a single month.

"It is obvious, if the corn trade were free every where, the prices would be higher, at least they were so in former years, when the accumulation was probably five times greater, than it is at present. But many years must elapse before that trade can be free, and it is therefore incumbent on us to take every means for averting the present distress.

without delay. Whether, and how far the following plan might promote the end proposed, is left for the public to BOOK
CXVIII judge.

“From the system of erecting granaries, as proposed some time ago, little benefit can be expected, for reasons which have been already sufficiently examined. If this plan were adopted, it might tend to strengthen the opinion entertained by foreigners, that large quantities of grain have been accumulated in the country, an error that has been very detrimental to us. The exportation of flour to South America is as yet too inconsiderable to affect beneficially the prices. It is therefore the opinion of the author of this memoir, that it is only by the annihilation of very considerable quantities of grain, that the prices can be raised; and, situated as we are, it can be effected in no other way than by an increased consumption of our agricultural produce.

“It was only now and then that an agriculturist found it profitable to feed his finest flocks with part of his corn. When the price of wool however rose considerably, the advantage of feeding with corn became obvious, and the system was found to remunerate, for wool has risen from thirty to thirty-three per cent. The feeding with grain may thus be continued on an extensive scale, and it may surely deserve consideration as being an effectual means of raising the price of corn.

“The well known political causes that have given rise to a greater consumption of wool, lead us to believe that the present high prices may maintain themselves still longer. It is true that the same causes must effect an increase in the production of wool, this, however, from the steps of nature itself can be done but gradually; and as it is a well known rule, founded on experience in rural economy, that a sheep, when allowed, in the winter season, besides the ordinary food of hay, straw, &c. an extra supply from eighty-five to ninety-six pounds weight of corn, yields from half to three quarters of a pound, and sometimes more wool, it follows that the feeding of a hundred sheep

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with a hundred and fifty-five bushels of rye would by this means yield an increase in the produce of wool of seventy-one pounds weight at least.

“ By this system the following prices might be obtained for the bushel of rye ; namely—

1s. 11d. if wool brings 4s. 2½d. the pound weight.

1s. 3½d. 2s. 10½d.

And 1s. 0d. 2s. 2d.

“ To this must be added the profits arising from fattening the animal itself, and which are by no means inconsiderable. They may be estimated at three shillings on each sheep, and as those destined for the butcher market form generally, the fourth part of the flock, another sixpence may be added to the price of the bushel of corn.

“ The number of fine woolled sheep in Germany is not less than eight, and perhaps not more than ten millions. Prussia alone contains at least four millions ; and if only half that number be fed on corn, all the surplus quantity that is complained of as an incumbrance might be at once annihilated, and a considerable rise in the price of corn would finally take place. This measure might perhaps have an influence on foreign countries, as our surplus corn could then be no longer an object of consideration with them.

“ It is not to be apprehended, that this substantial food would lower the price of wool ; the increase of wool would amount to no more than two or three millions of pounds weight, while the consumption of England and France, is actually forty millions of pounds weight at least. Besides, the higher price of corn being a consequence of this system, might then counterbalance any deficit in the price of wool, which may arise from the greater production of that article.”

TABLES.^d

An account of the quantities of Wheat, Rye, Barley, Oats, Beans and Peas, exported from East Prussia, West Prussia and Pomerania, from the year 1816 to the commencement of 1825.

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	1816. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats.	1817. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats, &c.
EAST PRUSSIA Exported from Koenigsberg Pillau and Memel	Quarters. 54,172 2,871	Quarters. 121,150 43,853	Quarters. 69,065 6,815	Quarters. 316,557
	57,043	165,003	75,880	413,683
WEST PRUSSIA. From Danzig . Elbing .	140,199 37,357	59,815 23,808	231,669 52,382	172,003 91,779
	177,556	83,628	284,051	263,782
POMERANIA. From Stettin .	1,693 To Sweden 1018 Holland 657	2,302 To Holland and England	15,389 To Great Britain 14,978 Sweden 209 Spain 592	9,079 To Great Britain
Other ports of Pomerania	30,167	84,151	37,928	115,057
	31,860	86,453	53,317	124,136
Total exportation	266,459	335,084	413,248	801,601
	1818.		1819.	
EAST PRUSSIA. From Koenigsberg Pillau and Memel	No Returns		12,793 613	157,151 54,715
			13,411	211,866
WEST PRUSSIA. Dantzic . Elbing .	294,986 58,485	94,441 89,559	84,747 15,155	72,867 65,632
	353,471	184,000	99,902	138,399
POMERANIA. Stettin .	98,640 To Great Britain	33,745 Great Britain 82,719 Spain 510 Denmark 98 France 418	5,594 To Great Britain	53,652 Great Britain 52,411 Denmark 502 Hamburgh 729
Other ports of Pomerania	36,343	82,872	36,148	91,241
	134,983	116,617	41,742	144,893
Total exportation			155,055	495,158

^d The above Tables are taken from Mr. Jacob's First Report.

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	1820. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats.	1821. Wheat.	Barley, Rye, Oats, &c.
EAST PRUSSIA.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.	Quarters.
Exported from Koenigsberg . .	39,954	160,429	16,676	30,371
Pillau and Memel . .	5,369	82,651	565	7,205
	45,323	243,080	17,241	37,576
WEST PRUSSIA.				
Danzig	323,917	49,155	166,855	18,885
Elbing	37,581	47,912	18,963	8,300
	361,498	97,067	185,818	27,185
POMERANIA.				
From Stettin . .	5,957 To Great Britain	6,277 Great Britain 5,558 Denmark 725	1,228 No Returns	8,272 No Returns
Other ports in Pomerania . .	51,966	86,716	40,553	50,211
	57,923	92,993	41,781	68,483
Total Exportation	464,744	433,140	194,840	153,244
	1822.		1823.	
EAST PRUSSIA.				
Exported from Koenigsberg . .	9,603	7,550	4689	15,448
Pillau and Memel . .	1,174		38	2,046
	10,777	7,550	4,727	17,494
WEST PRUSSIA.				
Danzig		316	57,281	61,081
Elbing	18,098	5,618	12,571	20,001
	18,098	5,934	69852	81,082
POMERANIA.				
Stettin	2413 Great Britain 949 Spain 1464	4924 To Great Britain	167 To Great Britain	5,622 Great Britain 5301 Denmark 321
Other Ports in Pomerania . .	47,028	61,894	46,946	49,965
	49,441	66,818	47,113	55,587
Total Exportation	78,316	80,302	121,692	154,163

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	1824.	1824.		
	Wheat.	Rye, Barley, Oats.		
EAST PRUSSIA.				
Exported from				
Koenigsberg	10,969	37,942		
Pillau and Memel	1,123	4,044		
	12,092	41,986		
WEST PRUSSIA.				
From Danzig	58,680	19,742		
Elbing	4,789	4,045		
	63,469	23,787		
POMERANIA.				
From Stettin	1,646	10,814		
	To Spain:	To Great Britain.		
Other Ports in Po-	24,711	111,405		
merania	26,537	122,216		
Total Exportation	101,918	187,989		

姓名	性别	年龄	职业	住址	备注
张三	男	25	学生	北京市海淀区	
李四	女	30	教师	北京市朝阳区	
王五	男	45	工程师	上海市浦东新区	
赵六	女	55	退休	广州市天河区	
孙七	男	60	农民	山东省临沂市	
周八	女	70	退休	北京市西城区	
吴九	男	75	退休	浙江省杭州市	
郑十	女	80	退休	广东省深圳市	
陈十一	男	85	退休	四川省成都市	
冯十二	女	90	退休	河南省郑州市	

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TABLE II.

An Account of the average Prices of Corn in the market of **BOOK**
Berlin on St. Martin's day from the year 1774 to 1824. **CXVIII.**

Year.	Wheat Quarter.		Rye Quarter.		Winter Barley Quarter.		Summer Barley Quarter.		Oats Quarter.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
1774	25	2	18	3	13	3	11	9	8	5
1775	24	4	19	4	15	3	13	3	11	2
1776	19	0	14	4	12	7	11	11	8	9
1777	20	0	13	3	11	9	10	7	8	9
1778	23	3	15	6	11	11	11	3	8	7
1779	18	7	14	10	10	7	10	0	8	1
1780	21	3	19	2	12	8	11	7	9	10
1781	22	11	21	0	15	2	14	10	11	8
1782	22	11	21	0	17	3	16	8	12	11
1783	27	6	21	10	16	7	15	2	11	0
1784	25	2	18	5	16	8	15	10	11	0
1785	27	4	21	2	15	2	13	7	11	7
1786	29	6	22	2	15	2	13	7	10	4
1787	24	2	18	1	13	10	12	1	10	2
1788	26	11	19	2	15	6	14	2	11	10
1789	33	4	21	10	17	7	16	4	12	10
1790	26	3	22	0	18	3	16	2	12	11
1791	27	4	19	2	15	6	13	11	11	0
1792	26	2	19	10	16	7	16	6	11	7
1793	27	1	20	0	17	3	16	6	11	0
1794	31	4	25	10	20	8	20	8	15	2
1795	39	0	23	10	23	6	23	7	17	3
1796	28	9	17	11	16	7	14	10	10	4
1797	29	8	20	4	17	3	14	6	10	8
1798	31	8	26	8	20	10	18	1	15	10
1799	39	5	26	6	24	6	21	11	15	9
1800	39	1	35	4	23	7	19	9	13	11
1801	42	4	29	8	25	10	21	9	19	9
1802	47	2	41	4	32	8	29	8	26	4
1803	56	10	27	9	27	1	23	3	14	10
1804	56	6	49	6	34	6	28	9	20	0
1805	60	1	57	6	40	8	34	10	29	1
1806	77	6	61	4	58	1	56	2	31	8
1807	49	8	27	5	31	8	26	2	22	11
1808	45	6	42	6	37	4	34	1	20	4
1809	27	9	20	4	17	10	16	10	11	0
1810	26	0	16	0	16	4	14	7	12	3
1811	38	8	26	10	20	8	17	2	13	6
1812	38	0	25	2	20	1	19	10	13	3
1813	36	8	26	5	24	6	22	1	17	3
1814	39	4	28	8	22	7	20	0	15	2
1815	38	3	25	8	19	4	20	2	13	11
1816	65	10	45	5	36	6	30	4	19	6
1817	54	7	43	1	36	10	33	8	25	7
1818	51	8	38	1	35	6	29	8	20	10
1819	34	0	24	6	22	9	21	11	17	10
1820	31	8	18	0	15	0	13	11	9	10
1821	30	8	16	2	13	4	11	4	9	6
1822	26	10	21	2	17	1	14	4	14	7
1823	26	6	14	0	12	4	11	2	8	11
1824	20	4	11	6	10	11	11	0	7	10

BOOK CXIX.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Description of Germany—Third Section—Great Dutchies of Mecklenburg and Oldenburg—Kingdom of Hanover.

**BOOK
CXIX.**

THE countries that have been described, are not perhaps calculated to excite the same interest as others of more importance in the political balance of Europe—the opposite weights on which its equilibrium depends. Since we left the dominions of that colossal power, which may in time dictate laws to Europe, and consequently to the world, we have examined countries more or less subject to its influence. That region which is still known by the name of Poland, and which still retains the title of kingdom, is nothing more than a dependence on Russia. Prussia, too, from its point of contact with the same formidable neighbour, must be, in many respects, a secondary power. How much more insignificant then are the principalities of Mecklenburg, Oldenburg or even the kingdom of Hanover, likely to appear, when contrasted with the Russian empire? But if these petty states and others that shall be afterwards mentioned, are of little or no importance in a political point of view; it cannot be denied that their inhabitants ought to be better governed, and therefore happier than others, scattered over an immense extent of territory. If their princes are less involved in the policy of foreign states, if cabinet and court intrigues are less frequent, they are better able to discover the wants of their subjects, propose wise laws, and found useful institutions.

Mecklenburg forms two great duchies, the one of Schwerin, the other of Strelitz, they are governed by two branches of the same family. The country, which is divided into these two principalities, is bounded on the south by Hanover and the Prussian province of Brandenburg, on the east by a part of the same province, and Pomerania, on the north by the Baltic, and lastly, on the west by Holstein. Its population amounts to 475,500 inhabitants, and the superficial extent of the country to 260 German square miles, consequently, the average number of individuals for every square German mile, is equal to 1828.

It is probable that the most ancient inhabitants of the country formed a part of that Scandinavian race, known in Europe during the middle ages by the name of Vandals. When these northern tribes invaded and conquered the countries that submitted to the degenerate Romans, the Vandals, who inhabited Mecklenburg, abandoned that territory, which was soon occupied by Wends and several Slavonic tribes; but in a short time the Obotriti remained the only masters of the land.

If some authors may be credited, the family of the Dukes of Mecklenburg must be very ancient. According to their opinion, that family was descended from Genseric, king of the Vandals, who devastated Rome in the year 455 of the Christian era. Others believe it to have been founded by Wislas or Wisilas, king of the Herules, the ancestor of Mistew the Second, surnamed the *Strong*. We may, therefore, without making the antiquity of the family greater than it is, suppose that it existed in the time of Charlemagne. Mistew the Second died about the year 1025. It has been maintained by some antiquarians that he was baptized, but that assumption is very improbable. Godsfal, the son of Eude, was in all likelihood the first Christian of the family; he was honoured with the double title of the martyr and apostle of his subjects,

* J. Bocer de Reg. et Reb. gestis ducum Meckl. *Albert Glantz*, historis Vandal. Geographisch, statistische Darstellung, &c. by F. W. Crome.

BOOK and it is supposed that he founded the bishopric of
CXIX. Schwerin. Whether he did so or not, may be considered uncertain, but it must be admitted that his example was not followed by his successor Pribislas, who took the title of king of the Obitriti, and was converted by Albert the Bear in the year 1151. Policy, not conviction, appears to have been the cause of his conversion. Expelled from his states by Henry the Lion, duke of Bavaria and Saxony, he did not return until after his baptism. Much about the same time he renounced the title of king, and assumed that of prince of Mecklenburg, which his successors have retained.

Some of these princes may be mentioned; John, surnamed the Young, founded the University of Rostock; John Albert, who died in 1576, established the Protestant religion in his dominions; lastly, Adolphus Frederick was dethroned in 1628 by the Emperor Ferdinand II, for having united with the enemies of the house of Austria; his states were ceded to Walstein. The emperor restored him to his protection after the peace of Prague, but not until the King of Sweden had placed him again on the throne. He was the father of two princes, Frederick and Adolphus Frederick, the chiefs of the two branches of the Mecklenburg family. These princes, after the death of their father, divided his dominions. The first founded the family of Schwerin, the second that of Strelitz. The two principalities have ever since remained separate; in the year 1808, they were included in the confederation of the Rhine, and it was not before 1815, that the princes took the titles of great dukes.

Soil.

Mecklenburg consists of a large and sandy plain, in the midst of which are forests and lakes, the latter are indeed more numerous than the towns; all of them abound in fish, and the largest are those of Plau, Malchin, Müritz, Klummerow, Schwerin, Schaal, Koelpin, Ratzeburg, Tollen, and Petersdorf. Some hills rise near the centre of these plains; Ruhnenberg or the highest was supposed to be 577 feet above the level of the Baltic sea; but M.

Hassel considers it equal at least to 641. Petersil, another hill of less elevation, is situated in the great dutchy of Strelitz; Hoheburg, a third, rises to the height of 495 feet. BOOK
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The Heilige-Damm or holy dike, a name that indicates perhaps the veneration in which it was held by the early inhabitants, consists of low and flat stones of different sizes and different colours. They are situated in the neighbourhood of the town of Dobberan, and serve as a barrier against the impetuous sea which breaks on them. They occupy a surface of more than two miles in length, and about fifteen yards in breadth; their height varies from twelve to sixteen feet. The manner in which the different stones are united, excites the admiration of all who observe them. The dike has been considered one of the most ancient religious monuments of the northern tribes. All the stones are polished and joined without cement; one may trace on them different figures, that appear to have some connexion with the Scandinavian mythology. Heilige-Damm.

The sands of Mecklenburg abound with silex, and rest on deposits of chalk, which, as has been already observed, appears without any covering on the island of Rugen. This statement may be confirmed by the great quantity of silex, echinites and other shell-fish, covered with particles of flint, that are thrown on these shores; besides, the chalk is visible in the pits and wells that are dug in the country. Although the sandy soil descends to a considerable depth, it is not, in many places, contiguous to the chalk, but separated from it by a stratum of argil mixed with vegetable remains and lignites or fossil wood, which, as we had occasion to remark, contains probably the nucleus of amber. Sand.

The climate of Mecklenburg, though temperate, is rendered moist from the number of lakes and marshes. The inhabitants rear a great many oxen and horses, the latter are valuable on account of their size, strength and swiftness. Climate.

The agricultural produce is abundant, it consists of potatoes, the ordinary kinds of grain, hemp, hops and excellent, pasturage, that grows on the extensive and fruitful Principal productions.

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meadows. It is certain that husbandry has been much improved, and that wastes covered with marshes or sterile sand, have been changed into fertile plains by the hand of man.

**Territorial
division.**

The great dutchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz is made up of the lands attached to the towns of Friedland, Furstemburg, Weisenberg, the burgh of Mirow, and New Strelitz, the capital. All the rest of the country belongs to the family of Schwerin.

**Govern-
ment.**

The government, the civil institutions, the distinctions that subsist between the nobles, burgesses and peasants, are not widely different in the two principalities; whatever observations may be made relatively to the one, are not inapplicable to the other; our remarks may, therefore, be confined to the dutchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin. The right of primogeniture regulates the succession, and the heir is supposed to arrive at majority at the age of eighteen. The younger princes are entitled to appanages, and each of the princesses receives a dowry, which has been estimated at 20,000 rix-dollars. According to a treaty, concluded in the year 1442, between the houses of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg, the second family succeeds to the principality after the extinction of the first.

It appears from other treaties, of as ancient a date as the year 1572, and which have been often renewed, that the great duke must share with the nobles, the right of administering justice, and imposing taxes. Different assemblies watch over the privileges of the different districts. Lastly, the nobles in the two dutchies make up a separate body, which has been called the *old union of the country* (*Alte Landes Union*).

**Marshals
and deputies.**

Three provincial marshals are chosen from the lords, and their office is the highest distinction that can be attained by a hundred and twelve noble families. The marshals form with eight counsellors and the deputy of Rostock, an assembly to which the management of the provinces is committed. Deputies are likewise nominated by the principal towns in the dutchy; they meet

every year, and are called together by the great duke. It is their office to examine contributions, and propose laws; their opinions are presented in writing to the prince. They have also the right to make known the complaints of their constituents, and to insist that abuses may be abolished. Private assemblies of the nobles are held in the towns where justice is administered, but the sovereign must be informed whenever it is deemed necessary to convocate a provincial council. The most of the towns have the privilege of choosing their mayors and magistrates, but every judge is appointed by the prince.

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The efforts made by the German princes in 1813, in order that their subjects might shake off a foreign yoke, induced them to make concessions and promises, which must ere long be fulfilled. It cannot be doubted that the many privations and hardships borne by the people, the sacrifices they made, and their heroic conduct, must be partly attributed to the future improvements, privileges and immunities that were held out to them at the time. The dukes of Mecklenburg, more fortunate than other princes, have found no obstacles in fulfilling engagements that are by so much the more sacred, as kings are responsible for abuses, which it is in their power to correct. At the time of the last coalition against France, the dukes of Mecklenburg levied many contributions, and furnished an extraordinary contingent of 19,000 troops to the German league. The abolition of servitude was to have been the reward of the most numerous and most oppressed class of the community. There were then some free labourers, but the most of the peasants could not quit the domain to which they belonged without the permission of the proprietors, nor chuse a different way of life than that in which they were brought up, nor a different trade than that of their fathers. It was in the power of an unjust master to prevent a peasant from marrying, and he could, as Stein affirms, inflict humiliating punishment on any whom he supposed negligent in performing their task. Thus the peasant was wholly dependent on his lord, and had merely the

Peasantry.

BOOK right of making known his complaints to the provincial tri-
CXIX. bunal, the legislators supposing it unnecessary to mitigate his condition, or that the mention of his grievances was sufficient to get them redressed. Because the proprietor was obliged to maintain him in years of scarcity, to furnish him with medicines and medical advice, when suffering from disease, and to support him, when unable to labour from old age, it was argued that his condition was preferable to that of a free peasant, who gained an uncertain subsistence by the sweat of his brow. As if the consciousness of submitting to a shameful servitude did not poison all the kindness that a slave expects from his master. Fortunately for Mecklenburg, its princes have been actuated by enlightened views and proper feeling in determining a question in which many conflicting interests were involved. The peasants in that country have enjoyed since 1820, an invaluable prerogative, individual liberty. The country must one day experience all the advantages of that great improvement, land must be equally divided, and honest industry may enable those to become proprietors, who were formerly attached to the soil.

Landed It is no longer doubted that the division of land among a
Proprietors. numerous class of proprietors, increases the affluence and prosperity of a country. The ducal domains in Mecklenburg are not less than four-tenths of the whole surface, the nobility possess five-tenths, and the remaining tenth is the property of the towns. The peasants cannot as yet acquire land, but contributions, imposts and extraordinary taxes are paid by every class of the community. The comparatively small number of inhabitants is to be accounted for by these causes; the two duchies are equal in extent to 720 square leagues, the population amounts to 486,000, or on an average for every square league to 675 individuals, a number that might be much more considerable in a country which is in other respects so well governed. It has been observed however that the number of inhabitants was not so great before the year 1820, and that it has always augmented since that period. Thus the continued increase in the population results as a necessary con-

sequence, from the abolition of slavery, which, like the harpies in the fable, occasions a pestilence wherever it exists.

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OXIX.

The reigning families and the most of the inhabitants in the two dutchies are Lutherans, or to speak more correctly, they adhere to the Augsburg confession. The clergy are subject to the jurisdiction of their consistories. The rest of the inhabitants are Calvinists, Catholics and Jews, all of them are allowed the public exercise of their worship. One may observe, beside temples and synagogues, convents that are now inhabited by the daughters of nobles and burghesses. The purpose of the last institutions has been changed since the reformation, the influence and authority of the bishops have been transferred to the nobles. The Jews obtained all the rights of citizens in 1813, but the children sprung from the marriage of Jewish and Catholic parents must be brought up in the Christian faith.

Religion.

It is unnecessary to say much of the towns in the great dutchy of Strelitz, indeed there are not any of much importance. Stargard, which is commanded by an old castle, need only be mentioned on account of its porcelain and cloth manufactures, for its population is little more than 1000 souls. Friedland contains 4000, but the preparation of tobacco is the only branch of industry in which its inhabitants are engaged. New-Brandenburg, on the lake of Tollen, is peopled by 5000 souls, its trade consists in spirits, cloth, linen and cotton manufactures. Alt-Strelitz or Old-Strelitz is a town of 3000 inhabitants, and many of them are employed in dressing leather, or preparing tobacco. The largest buildings are a workhouse and a lunatic asylum. Neu-Strelitz or New-Strelitz, the capital, has been remarked for the regularity with which it is built, all its straight and broad streets terminate in a common centre. It is the seat of the highest courts in the country; the principal buildings are the ducal palace, a gymnasium, a fine school of arts, and a seminary for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters. The population is upwards of 5300 souls, and its trade consists chiefly in iron, cutlery and arms.

Great
dutchy of
Strelitz.

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duchy of
Schwerin.

The towns are larger and more numerous in the great duchy of Schwerin. Wismar is situated on a gulf, it contains, according to Hassel, 8352 inhabitants. Spacious docks for building ships have been erected, but the other public works are comparatively insignificant. The church of St. Mary is the largest of any in the town, and in it are preserved several relics that are connected with miraculous traditions. Rostock on the Warnow is the most important town in the country, its population amounts to 15,300 souls; the expenses of its university, which still possesses some celebrity, are defrayed by the great duke and the mayor of the town. Other seminaries of learning might be mentioned, and also a society of natural history that has been long established, several distinguished naturalists are included in the number of its members. The principal buildings are the mint, the arsenal, the dock-yards; the convent and nine churches, in one of them, that of St. Mary, may be seen an urn in which the heart of the celebrated Grotius is deposited. The town enjoys several important privileges, it fixes the amount of its contributions, possesses the right of navigating and fishing in the Warnow, and different immunities which it is unnecessary to specify. The salt water baths at Dobberin, in the neighbourhood of the town are well known on account of the healing virtue that is attributed to them, and they are perhaps the most commodious and the best built of any in Germany.

Schwerin.

Schwerin, formerly Schwelfe, contains a population of 10,237 inhabitants; it is situated between two lakes, the largest or the lake of the same name, is upwards of five leagues in length from north to south. Schwerin is divided into the old and new town, the last of which has been said to be better built than any other in Mecklenburg, yet there are not many public buildings; some churches, a synagogue, the mint and an hospital are all that can be mentioned. The ducal palace is built on an island, and situated near the middle of the lake Schwerin. In the interior of the castle is a gallery of valuable paintings to

gether with a collection of coins and medals, and a museum of natural history. The gardens, though visited by strangers, are inferior to those round the castle of Lewisburg, a country seat belonging to the duke, about five leagues from Schwerin. Nothing indeed can exceed the beauty of these gardens, they are situated in the midst of a fine country, and planned with great taste after the English manner.

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The trade of Schwerin consists chiefly in spirits, cloth and tobacco.

The commerce of the great dutchy of Mecklenburg has been gradually increasing; but of all its ports, that of Rostock or rather Warnemunde, which is dependent on the town of Rostock, is the most frequented. The number of vessels that enter it every year, amounts nearly to seven hundred. Grain, butter, cheese, tobacco, naval timber, horses, oxen and pigs are the principal exports of the country. It receives oil, tallow and hemp from Russia; wines from France; iron, herring and cod from Sweden; tin, lead, coal and different manufactures from England. Commerce might be much increased in the interior, if the old roads were improved, or new ones made, if canals were opened, by which easy communications might be formed in every direction, and the labour of cutting them is facilitated by the great number of lakes in the country.

The revenue and military force are very different in the two great dutchies. Three thousand six hundred troops are paid by government in Schwerin, and the revenue amounts to 2,400,000 florins. The population of Strelitz does not exceed 76,000 souls, a corps of 700 men is maintained, and the total revenue is not more than 50,000 florins.

It is necessary to traverse Hanover in order to arrive at a petty state, which extends on the right bank of the Lower Weser. The great dutchy of Holstein-Oldenburg is limited on the north by the North Sea, on the east by the river that has been already mentioned, and in every other direction by the kingdom of Hanover. The extent of its surface may be equal to two hundred and ninety-two

Revenue,
&c.

Great
dutchy of
Oldenburg.

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CXIX.**

leagues, and the population, according to the last census, which was made in 1822, amounts to 196,000 souls, or on an average to six hundred and seventy-one individuals for every square league; on the whole, therefore, the country is in proportion to its size less populous than Mecklenburg. But the great duke is the sovereign of more states than Oldenburg, he rules over two small and remote principalities. The first or Lubeck is surrounded by Holstein, and distant about forty leagues from the town of Oldenburg; the second or Birkenfeld on the banks of the Nahe, is more than eighty leagues to the south of the same capital. The number of inhabitants in the three states are not less than 240,700 persons, and as they are scattered over a surface of three hundred and forty-one square leagues, the two principalities are proportionably better peopled than the dutchy, so that the average term of the population subject to the great duke is not less than seven hundred and six individuals for every square league.

**Ancient
inhabitants.**

Little is known concerning the ancient inhabitants; it is agreed, however, that they belonged to that Cimbro-Saxon race, which, before the fourth century of the Christian era, possessed the lands near the Elbe, the Rhine and the shores of the North Sea. The country, it cannot be doubted, was more marshy at that remote period than at present; a great part of it, indeed, must have been uninhabitable. These ancient tribes of hunters and fishers were mostly collected near the mouth of the Weser, and on the banks of the Jahde.

**Princes of
Oldenburg.**

Sigefroi I, the sixth descendant in direct line from Wit-kind the Great, is mentioned by some authors among the princes of Oldenburg.^b It is certain that Christiern of Oldenburg, was succeeded in the fourteenth century by his son Theodoric, who was surnamed the Fortunate, probably on account of his marriage with Hedwige, the heiress of Sleswick and Holstein. The same prince was the father

^b J. Elvert de Nobilitate et urbibus Holsatiæ. Petersen, Chron. Holsatiæ. Dictionary of Moreri, Holstein.

of Christiern the I, who reigned in Denmark, and of Gerard his successor in the dutchy of Oldenburg. Gerard was styled the Warlike, because he frequently made war against Christiern, and endeavoured to deprive him of the states, which were left him by his mother. He had the misfortune, however, of being vanquished, and made prisoner, not by a warrior like himself, but by Henry of Schwartzenburg, archbishop of Bremen, and bishop of Munster, by whom he was sent into exile, an event that tended probably to shorten his life: he died in France in the year 1500. In these days there were other causes of offence, and other scandals in the church, besides that of seeing ecclesiastics engaged in war, and sullied with blood on the field of battle. The descendants of Gerard reigned over Oldenburg, but Antony Gontier, the last of these princes, having died without heirs, his states passed in 1667 into the house of Denmark, from which they were transferred in 1773 to the great duke Paul, afterwards emperor of Russia; the principality was at the same time changed into a dutchy. Paul ceded the dutchy in 1785 to his cousin Peter Frederick William, a member of the ducal family of Holstein-Gottorp. But the dutchy was annihilated in 1810, and the territory added to the different countries, which made up a new French department, the Mouths of the Weser. Three years afterwards, the prince was enabled by the political changes in Europe to enter his dominions. Lastly, in 1815, the congress of Vienna conferred on him the title of great duke, and ceded to him the principality of Birkenfeld, which has been already mentioned; the emperor of Russia made over to him, much about the same time, the seigniory of Jever.

The dutchy of Oldenburg is on the whole a low country, Soil. but some heights which extend along the coast, defend it against the encroachments of the sea. The land on the banks of rivers is rich and fruitful, but the rest of the country is sandy and unproductive. The sand rests, as in Mecklenburg, on a deposit of chalk.

The same appearances are observed in the principality of Lubeck, but the soil and the rocks in Birkenfeld are Precious stones.

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widely different, and much more interesting to the geologist. It is well known that an immense quantity of agates, jaspers and calcedonies are collected in the neighbourhood of the village of Oberstein; it is also known that the industry of the inhabitants has been directed to the natural wealth of their country, the importance of which shall be afterwards explained. It is sufficient at present to state the conflicting opinions of the best writers concerning the origin of the rocks from which these agates are obtained.

The rocks form extensive hills, they are hard and of a blackish colour; they appear to be similar to those which Haüy designates by the name of *aphanites*, such at least appears in all probability to be the opinion of a celebrated writer.^c But it has been affirmed by a Belgian geologist that these hills are the products of the ocean, and of the intermediate formation, which has succeeded that of granite.^d M. Humboldt supposes their formation still more recent,—contemporaneous with those deposits of red sandstone and porphyry that accompany the vast strata of coal.^e Lastly, Faujas and Cordier believe the rocks of Oberstein to be volcanic products.^f Although it may be difficult to decide amidst so many opposite opinions, all of them supported by distinguished geologists, we are led from the analogy between these rocks and others of a volcanic nature, to attribute to them a common origin.

Agricultural
produce.

Some parts of Oldenburg are fruitful in pasturage; the inhabitants rear sheep, oxen and a great many horses, which are almost as much prized as those of Mecklenburg. The most of the peasants keep pigs and geese, of which the quills are exported into different parts of Germany. The climate too is favourable to bees, but it is only in certain parts of the country that they can be kept with advantage. The most of the interior is ill adapted for agriculture, and covered in many places with heaths and

^c D'Aubuisson de Voisin, *Traité de Géognosie*, tom. ii. p. 224.

^d M. Omalius d'Halloy, *Journal des Mines*, tom. xxiv. pp. 136, 141.

^e *Voyages*, tom. i. p. 343.

^f *Voyage Géologique à Oberstein*,

marshes; one may travel for several hours in the south-west districts without seeing a tree or a single habitation. It may thus be easily believed that the grain produced is inadequate to the consumption of the inhabitants. None of the forests are extensive, indeed it might be difficult to supply even the wealthiest classes with fuel, were it not for the facility with which peats may be obtained. Among the plants that are cultivated, are hops and lint, the first is used in the numerous breweries, the second in the manufactories, that have been erected in different parts of the country. Not the least portion of the territorial wealth consists in flocks and herds. The wool is not only used in making cloth; stocking weavers purchase a great part of it; the commerce produced by that branch of industry, is considerable, for the value of the stockings that are made in the districts of Kloppenburg and Vechta, and afterwards exported or sold in the country, amounts every year to 100,000 crowns.

Humling or the highest district in the country forms a large and sandy heath sufficiently provided with herbage to afford pasture for sheep; the inhabitants have no other riches than their flocks and bees. Their sheep supply them with coarse wool, and their bees yield a great quantity of honey. The peasants quit the high region in the spring, and carry their hives along with them to the low northern plains, where many of the fields are sown with rape. After that plant has been reaped, they transport their bees to the marshy districts in which buck wheat is cultivated; they remain there until the heather in their own country is covered with flowers.

It might be worth while for travellers to observe more minutely the manner of life, customs and industry of these peasants. The state of society, which would be thus exhibited, might be found to be similar in some respects to that of several wandering tribes that are mentioned in the Bible. The sea and river fishings in the country of Oldenburg are very productive, they furnish the means of employment and subsistence to a great many individuals.

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CXIX.****Climate.**

The most northern part of the dutchy is exposed to a cold and humid atmosphere, which may be accounted for from its proximity to the sea, and also from the form of the bay of Jahde, a gulf that penetrates into the land to the distance of sixteen miles, and is so called from the little river that falls into it. The district that borders on the bay, is subject to violent north winds, the cold season lasts longer than in the rest of the country, although the spring and the summers throughout Oldenburg are later than in other parts of Germany, situated under the same parallel. The evening and nights are often very cold in the midst of summer, and the sudden change of temperature has been considered the cause of dangerous and frequent diseases.

Language.

The German is spoken by the Oldenburgers, but it is not supposed that they speak it well, at all events their pronunciation has been condemned by German purists.

Religion.

A great portion of the inhabitants are Lutherans, there are however a considerable number of Catholics, many Calvinists and several Jews ; no political restraints are imposed on the different sects. The Lutherans are in possession of a hundred and one churches, of which the government is committed to three superintendants. A moderator presides in the assemblies of the Calvinists. The Catholics have not fewer than thirty-seven parishes, and all of them are subject to the inspection of a dean. A consistory is the highest ecclesiastical court that the Lutherans acknowledge, and its jurisdiction extends not only over their different churches, but also over their different seminaries and places of education.

**Govern-
ment.**

The great duke of Oldenburg, as the sovereign of the country, is at the head of a supreme council, to his deliberation every matter of importance is entrusted. The different members of the administration are responsible to another council, over which the minister of the duke presides. A third council regulates the revenue and expenditure.

Justice.

A court of chancery, and a court of appeal are the highest tribunals, and the subordinate officers are magi-

strates and bailiffs. The country is divided into districts, bailiwicks and parishes. The magistrate of each district judges in the first instance, but his decision may be revoked by the court of chancery, from which the parties are at liberty to appeal to the supreme court of justice. BOOK
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Oldenburg, the capital of the dutchy, and the most im-Oldenburg. portant town from its population, which amounts to five thousand five hundred inhabitants, is situated at the confluence of the Hase and the Hunte. The town is well built, the houses are large, the streets are broad and straight. It is surrounded by two suburbs, and it appears from the census of 1823, that the number of houses was at that time equal to six hundred and fifty. Three churches, as many hospitals, a gymnasium that possesses no mean reputation, and a seminary that is set apart for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters, are the most useful institutions. The small harbour of Oldenburg communicates with the North Sea by means of the Hunte and the Weser. The inhabitants carry on a trade in sugar, tobacco, soap and leather. Oldenburg is the birthplace of Lubin, a writer of great learning, who died in 1821; he was the author of a Latin treatise on the nature and origin of evil, and also of very curious and erudite commentaries on Anacreon, Perseus and Juvenal; these works were at one time much read, they are now only consulted by few scholars. The great duke has a castle at Oldenburg, but he resides generally at Rastede, a place at no great distance from the town.

Delmenhorst on the Delme, is peopled by two thousand Other towns. inhabitants; a fair is held in it every year, during which a great many horses and oxen are sold. *Wildeshausen*, a town that contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants, is chiefly remarkable on account of its leather works and cloth manufactories. *Saterland*, which ought not to be passed over in silence, is situated in the middle of a marshy district, and its inhabitants, originally Frieslanders, have retained the manners and customs of their ancestors.* The people of both sexes, from the age of five to the most ad-

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vanced period of life, employ their leisure hours in knitting stockings. Varel, which is situated at the mouth of the Jahde, contains a population of two thousand six hundred individuals; it is a place of considerable trade, and the entrance of vessels into its harbour is rendered easy by the tides.

We have thus briefly enumerated the most important towns in the great dutchy of Oldenburg. It ought to be remarked, that many of the marshes have of late years been drained by government; sluices and canals have been constructed to serve as outlets for the waters. These operations, undertaken and continued at a great expense, must be one day attended with beneficial results.

**Principality
of Lubeck.**

It has been already stated that the Duke of Oldenburg possesses two small principalities, those of Lubeck and Birkenfeld. The town of Lubeck, and the territory attached to it, shall be afterwards more fully mentioned; they form no part of the first principality, which ought, perhaps to be called Eutin or Utina, from its capital, that is situated on a lake of the same name. Eutin is a small but well built town, of which the population was supposed to be equal to two thousand five hundred souls. It possesses a gymnasium and a large castle. The principality of Lubeck is peopled by twenty thousand inhabitants, who are almost all Lutherans; its surface is not less than twenty-six square leagues or a hundred and fifty-six English square miles.

**Principality
of Birken-
feld.**

A small territory, which formed at one time a part of the French department of the Sarre, and which has been since raised into a principality, contains 20,000 inhabitants, that are scattered over a surface of a hundred and fifty English square miles.

**Towns—
Birkenfeld.**

Birkenfeld, which is situated on the Nahe, is rather a burgh than a town; its population amounts to fourteen hundred individuals, and its trade consists chiefly in iron. Oberstein, another burgh of the same sort, but more interesting from the industry of its inhabitants, is situated in a small valley on the Nahe. There are not fewer than

twenty mills in which different articles of furniture, jewels, and precious stones, such as agates, calcedony, cornelians, jaspers and lapis lazuli are cut and polished. Men, women and children are constantly employed in preparing and finishing the different articles, which are exported to most countries in Europe, for in no other place is that sort of work so well executed, or at so little expense. The annual exports, it is supposed, are sold for L.12,500, and they consist mostly of ear-rings, snuff-boxes, seals, bracelets and necklaces.

The naturalist Faujas has given an account of the manner in which hard stones are worked in Oberstein.⁶ A great part of the population are employed in hollowing and polishing agates. A cutting mill consists of a tree that serves as an axle for several millstones, which are moved by a current of water by means of a large wheel and others of smaller dimensions. A workman, seated on a horizontal plank, holds in his hand a piece of wood, to which an agate is attached, and rubs it against a millstone that revolves rapidly, and is constantly moistened by a small stream of water. The millstones are made of very hard sandstone of a reddish colour; in some of them channels or furrows and different angles are cut, and the men use them with much skill in executing any delicate or complicated piece of work. Wheels and cylinders of soft wood are made to move by strong straps of leather, that are attached to the two extremities of the tree on which the millstones revolve. These wheels and cylinders are used in giving the last polish to the different works, and that part of the labour is generally committed to women. It is obvious, however, that any machinery made of soft wood must be wholly useless in polishing the hard agates that are fashioned by the millstones; it ought to be mentioned, therefore, that the wheels and cylinders are covered with a fine paste made of some hard substance reduced to powder.

⁶ Voyage Géologique à Oberstein—Annales du Muséum, tom. vi. p. 53, &c.

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The workmen at Oberstein refuse to give strangers any information concerning the nature of this substance, or the place from which they obtain it. If an opinion may be formed from its colour, it is probably an amalgam or composition. It is thus that they are enabled to give a fine lustre to their works, and to sell them at a moderate price. M. Faujas after much trouble and fruitless research discovered the place in which the powder was obtained. It is found, says that writer, on the hills in the neighbourhood, and is nothing more than a sort of argil formed from porphyry in a state of decomposition. It consists principally of feldspath that has undergone by the action of water and the atmosphere alterations analagous to those by which the same substance is changed into the white clay that is called kaolin, and used in the manufacture of porcelain. It may be difficult to conceive how the vases and snuff-boxes made at Oberstein can be hollowed on large millstones. But when these articles are made, cones of sandstone of different diameters are substituted for the small wooden wheels that have been already mentioned. On these cones, which turn with great rapidity, it is not difficult to hollow a large piece of agate.

Armed
force.

The military establishment in the great dutchy of Holstein-Oldenburg amounts to two thousand men, its revenue is not less than 1,500,000 florins, and its finances are in a state of prosperity, that may excite the admiration of greater nations. The national debt, which was equal in 1817 to 485,744 dollars, or L.85,005, has been since liquidated by means of judicious retrenchments, and advances made by the great duke.

Hanover.

The kingdom of Hanover, formerly an electorate, is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, on the east by Holstein, Mecklenburg and the Prussian province of Saxony, on the south by the dutchy of Brunswick, and the great dutchy of the Rhine, and on the west by the Low countries. Its surface is about 1,932 square leagues, or 11,592 English square miles. The number of inhabitants cannot be less than 1,463,700, so that the population

for every square mile is nearly equal to one hundred and twenty-seven individuals.

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Hanover is one of the northern states that was once inhabited by the Saxons, who invaded England. Formerly a rude and warlike people, they are now peaceably settled in the country, which their ancestors conquered; formerly devoted to rapine or plunder, and fond of a wandering life, they are now civilized, beneficent and attached to their country. They appear to have lost every trace of their ancient origin, except their bravery and love of liberty. Their ancestors worshipped sanguinary and revengeful gods, their descendants practise the virtues inculcated in a religion of mercy. The Hanoverians were part of the Cimbri-Saxon branch, which was divided into several nations and tribes. The *Longobardi* or *Vinuli* inhabited both banks of the Elbe; the *Chemi*, as has been already remarked in the account of Oldenburg, possessed the lands at the mouth of the Weser; the *Fusi* occupied the country, which now forms the territory of Hildesheim; and the *Cherusci*, who mixed at a later period with the Franks, were settled in the Hartz forests.

Ancient inhabitants.

The names of some mountains, and of several places in the country, are connected with the different divinities that were adored by the early inhabitants. Sonnenberg signifies the mountain of the sun, and the termination *horn*, which occurs in several names, is probably connected with the moon, that was worshipped and typified by the horns of a crescent. *Biel*^h was the name which the northern nations gave to the god of vegetation, and to the special protector of the Hercynian forest. The same word is still applied to different places in Germany. The word *ostern*, which signifies easter, a derivative from *ost*, is believed by many Germans of the present day to have been the name of a planetary festival, which was abolished after the introduction of christianity. Antiquaries are too apt to draw incorrect inferences from a number of stones,

Ancient divinities.

^h Hennius.

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fancifully arranged or grouped together on hills, plains and forests. If such a system were adopted, it might be easy to trace the druidical worship in almost every country on the earth; and without doubt similar monuments might be found on the top of mount Brocken.

Electors of
Hanover.

The electoral family of Hanover is sprung from the ancient house of Brunswick. Ernestus Augustus, the youngest son of George, duke of Brunswick, was the founder of the family. That prince, who was made bishop of Osnabruck in 1662, succeeded to the dukedom of Hanover, after the death of his brother, who was the titular duke of the principality. Ernestus soon became a great general, and rendered so important services to the empire that Leopold raised him to the rank of an elector, and made the dignity hereditary in his family. His son, George Lewis, was proclaimed King of England in 1712, after the death of Queen Anne; and that prince, whose father had been bishop of Osnabruck, was a firm supporter of protestantism. Great Britain thus obtained possession of Hanover, to which it continued to add new states until the year 1802; by this means it got a footing on the continent, and was enabled to take more or less interest in continental affairs, according to circumstances. The league that it formed against France, gave the last power a pretext for conquering Hanover, which, in conformity to a treaty concluded in 1806, belonged for some months to Prussia, and was afterwards divided by Napoleon between France and the kingdom of Westphalia, which he had lately founded. It was not until 1813 that Hanover was restored to England; the following year it was erected into a kingdom, and was afterwards enlarged by the addition of East-Friesland and other territories.

Soil.

From the shores of the sea, to the southern extremity of Hanover, the land rises gradually in the direction of the Hartz mountains; many ramifications that extend from them, are situated in the kingdom. The land, near the sea, and particularly in the eastern districts, which are watered by the Lower Elbe and the Lower Weser, is chiefly

formed by alluvial deposits, brought down by these two rivers. It is often exposed to inundations, the destructive effects of which can only be prevented by dikes and embankments. The great number of marshes in the same part of the country, proves sufficiently the recent formation of the land, or the comparatively short period since it emerged from the water. The same remark is applicable to the western districts that are watered by the Ems. These districts are not productive, but the most sterile lands are the heaths or downs of Lunenburgh and Verden, situated between the Elbe and the Weser, and the plains of Meppen on the right bank of the Ems. In these poor districts so ill adapted for agriculture, the traveller passes through countries covered with sand, forests of fir trees, heaths and marshes. A portion of the marshy districts near the territory of Bremen has been cultivated, but much time and labour must be spent before any improvement can be discernible in the vast heaths of Lunenburgh, that occupy from east to west an extent of sixty miles, and not much less than the same distance from south to north, or from Cell to Harburgh. The land in the neighbourhood of Bentheim, consists mostly of immense heaths, covered in different places with marshes and stagnant water. Considered in a geological point of view, the countries that have been mentioned, belong to the most recent formation, to the one that has been called *ternary*.

The sea near the town of Stade, not far from the mouth of the Elbe, carries along with it at every tide, the remains of trees different from those which now grow on the land. Blumenbach considers them to be fossil; they are brown, black and almost always bituminous. They are real lignites, and their presence proves that the sea covers a more recent land than the chalk, of which the traces have been seen on the shores of the Baltic.

The second or calcareous formation is observable towards the Hartz, and extends along a line drawn from west to east, from Osnabruck to Hanover. It rests on the chain of the Hartz, which rises like an island in the

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midst of the territory. The mountains that form the chain are mostly composed of granite, and they are more precipitous on the south than on the north. All of them are not situated in Hanover, it has been already seen that part of them belong to Prussia, but as we have only described Mount Brocken in our account of the Prussian provinces, it is necessary to enter into some details concerning that mountainous and metallic region.

Etymology
of its name.

The Hartz form part of the country, which the ancients denominated the Hercynian forest, (*Sylva Hercynia*.) It has been observed by different writers that the analogy between the Latin and German names proves that the former has been derived from the German word Hartzwald. The country, it cannot be denied, was in ancient times covered with immense forests of fir trees. But the German writers have proceeded a step further, they have endeavoured to discover the etymology of the word hartz; some affirm that it comes from *hart*, the origin of which is unquestionably Germanic, and the signification accords sufficiently with the rugged appearance of these mountains, and perhaps with the harsh physiognomy of their inhabitants. Other writers have derived the word from Hertha, the name of an ancient divinity that was supposed to inhabit the woods and mountains. The last derivation is rendered probable from the circumstance, that a word analagous to hartz was applied by the Germans to denominate all the mountainous chains in their country, and it is thus easy to account for the immense extent, which the Romans assigned to the Hercynian forest. Led into error by a generic term applicable to many places, they believed in the existence of a country, covered with mountains and forests that occupied the greater part of Germany.

Julius Cæsar affirms that the Hercynian forest is so broad that it requires nine days' march to cross it, and so long that no German can travel from one extremity to the other in sixty days.¹ It has also been supposed that the

¹ Cæsar's Commentaries, Book VI.

name of the Hartz was derived from the fir trees, which in ancient times overtopped the peaked summits of these mountains, and this is perhaps the most probable etymology.^k Hartz is at present the German word for rosin, and it is natural to suppose that the use which they made of that vegetable substance, and its value in exchange for other commodities, induced them to give its name to the mountains from which it was obtained in great abundance. The chain of the Hartz is about seventy-five miles in length and twenty in breadth. Steep summits, vallies, woods and marshes form a natural labyrinth, from which it is almost impossible for a stranger to extricate himself without a guide.

The limestone rests on the granite rocks of this chain, Caverns. and in it are observed several caverns, less remarkable for their numerous and intricate windings than for the enormous quantity of fossil bones which are contained in them, so much so, that they may be considered immense natural charnel-houses, in which are deposited the remains of many animals different from any at present existing on the surface of the earth. Such phenomena attest the important changes that have happened in our planet. The most remarkable of these caverns are those of Licorne and Baumann. The first is situated at the base of the castle of Schartzfels, and consists of five grottos that communicate with each other by numerous sinuations, which must be past both in going down and in returning from the cave. The second, which is much larger, consists likewise of the same number of cavities placed on different levels. The height of the first above the second grotto is equal to thirty feet. It is necessary, after having mounted and descended, to pass a rapid declivity that leads to a subterranean gallery partly filled with water, and situated below the grottos. In that gallery, which is seldom visited, are contained many bones, belonging for the most part to tigers, hyenas and bears of much larger dimensions than any that can be seen at present.

^k Strabo, Book VII

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CXIX.Witches
Fountain.

Several streams which enlarge the Elbe and the Weser, take their rise from the Hartz mountains. The *Witches' Fountain* (*Hexen Brunnen*) is among the number of these springs; its name, as a traveller remarked, indicates certain superstitious practices of the ancient inhabitants in that country.¹ After Christianity was established by the sword of Charlemagne, priestesses visited the fountain, performed their rites at it, and the Christians, confounding their ceremonies with the worship of demons, termed the spring by the name which it still retains. It is situated at the distance of twenty feet below the summit of Mount Brocken, and emits an abundant supply of fresh and limpid water.^m

Mines.

The Hartz mountains have been long known on account of their mines; the silver veins are for the most part situated in the territory of Hanover; they are embedded in the fissures of a sandy rock, which is now generally known by the German name of *Grauwacke*. The remains of vegetables and marine animals are contained in the same rock. The other metals which are worked, are lead, iron, copper, zinc and even gold; sulphur and arsenic are also obtained. Marble, slate, sharpening stones and several kinds of argil are observed in different parts of the range. There are, besides, many mineral springs, but those at Limmer and Pyrmont are the most frequented.

Miners.

It has been remarked that there are few places in Europe, where the art of the miner is so well understood as in the Hartz mountains. The workmen employed in the mines, form a distinct population of 56,000 individuals, whose ancestors migrated from Franconia. The first strangers that settled on these mountains, were sent by Charlemagne; but during the eleventh century, a new colony was invited to work the mines at Rammelsberg, which were at that time discovered. Their descendants are easily recognised by their black uniforms and red feathers. They are arranged like soldiers into companies, and their

¹ M. A. B. Mangourit, Voyage en Hanovre.^m Lasius.

commanders are engineers, whose rank corresponds with that of generals, colonels and lieutenants. The men are attached to the service, and the utmost harmony reigns amongst them. The most of them are fond of the chase, a favourite amusement of their ancestors; they are distinguished too by their love of music, and their partiality for the songs of their country. Their frank and rural hospitality may be considered another quality common to them with their forefathers. Strangers seldom visit them, but those who do so are always made welcome.

Few lakes are situated in the kingdom of Hanover, indeed there are only three that are worthy of notice. The first is the *Steinhundermeer*, and the second, the *Dumersee*, the latter abounds in fish, and its surface is about three miles in breadth, and six in length. But the most remarkable of them all, is the lake of *Jordan* in East Friesland; it extends a considerable distance under ground, and the land above it, says Stein, is sufficiently solid to support the weight of carriages.

The climate of Hanover is in most places mild; the natives boast of its salubrity, but it must be confessed that the humidity of the low and marshy grounds is unwholesome, and the temperature in a great part of the country, extremely variable. The winters are severe, and the weather is sometimes cold in summer. The dews and vapours which rise from the ground in the same season, about sunrise and sunset, are often fatal to invalids. The north-west wind blows frequently during winter, the east wind in spring, and the south-west prevails in summer and partly in autumn. The influence of these winds, and the sudden changes of temperature are very unwholesome.

It need not excite surprise after this account of the climate, that different maladies are not uncommon in Hanover. If the month of July be very warm, the inhabitants are exposed to epidemical diseases. But the most common-diseases are nervous and intermittent fevers, phthisis, paralysis and apoplexy.

The natural wealth of Hanover consists in its sea and

BOOK river fishings, in the game that abound in its forests, fields
CXIX. and marshes, in the cattle that are fed on its pastures, in

Products. its vegetable productions, and lastly, in the mines that are contained in its mountains. Adhering to these divisions, according to which few countries can be compared with Hanover, we shall endeavour to give an account of each of them.

Fish. Since the year 1792, the time that George the Third granted encouragement to the whale fisheries, many have set out every season to the shores of Greenland. But the fisheries on the coasts of Hanover, are very productive. The rivers and lakes are abundantly stocked with different kinds of fish, such as perch, barbel, carp, pike, trouts and eels of a very large size.

Forests. Planks and timber well adapted for the construction of small vessels are obtained from the forests. Fire wood, it is true, is very dear, but as several coal mines are worked, that inconvenience is in a great measure obviated. Many decayed fir trees are observed in the woods; the cause of their decay has been attributed to the ravages of an insect, which appears to be the same as the *Bostrichus typographus* of the naturalist Fabricius.^a The fact however may be considered doubtful, for that insect has been seldom known to attack living trees. There are many very large oaks in the neighbourhood of Cell. Stein assures us that he has measured some, which were near the ground more than forty feet in circumference, and near the branches upwards of twenty-five.

Animals. The forests afford shelter for stags, roe-deer, wild boars, hares and rabbits, but fortunately for the farmer, their number has much decreased within the last twenty years. The marshes abound with different water fowl, and many ortolans are killed in the neighbourhood of Osnabruck. It is principally in the Hartz range that the wolves are formidable from their number and size. The horned cattle are not large, but the oxen and sheep on the moun-

^a Mangourit, Voyage en Hanovre.

tains are said to be of an excellent kind. The Hanoverian horse is considered very valuable; whether it be owing to abundant pastures and the great quantity of oats that are cultivated, or whether the race be indigenous to the country, it is certain that strangers are often astonished at the strength and symmetry of the horses that are seen in the waggons of the peasantry. It is remarkable, however, that the Arab and southern breeds have been crossed with those of the north, and have never succeeded in Hanover.

The wool in the country is in general coarse and of a bad quality, but it has been improved since the time that government encouraged the introduction of Spanish sheep. The inhabitants in some of the districts gain a considerable profit by the sale of their poultry; and the rearing of bees is found to be a lucrative employment. In spring, when the meadows are enamelled with flowers, the peasants, who in that season have no other occupation, leave their villages, collect these valuable insects, and fill perhaps 60,000 hives.

The principal wealth of Hanover consists in the pro-Mines. duce of the mines; not less than 75,000 hundredweights of iron are obtained every year, 5000 of lead, 7000 of copper, and 40,000 marks of silver. The working of the copper mines furnishes besides 2000 hundredweights of sulphata of copper, or vitriol.

Agriculture is not in an advanced state in the king-Agriculture. dom. The waste lands are very extensive, and no attempts to drain any part of the marshes have originated from government. It is admitted that agricultural societies, which are now established in large towns, have proposed some improvements; but it is difficult to determine how much time may be consumed before such societies can enlighten the mass of proprietors and peasants, adverse to innovation, and guided by routine. The agricultural products are hay, oats, the ordinary kinds of grain, maise, beans, potatoes, and lastly, hemp and lint.

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The fruits in Hanover, with the exception of the apple, are neither so large, so good nor so abundant as those in France. The vine is only cultivated in the gardens, the grapes are principally consumed by the wealthy, little or no wine is made from it, and it does not often arrive at perfect maturity.

Industry.

The manufactures of the kingdom are not of the best quality. The natives are more disposed to seek employment in a foreign country than to cultivate the land, or gain a livelihood in their own. Stein supposes that the number of individuals, who migrate every year to Holland, cannot be less than 16,000. The Hanoverians have succeeded, however, in the manufacture of tobacco, soap, different woollen stuffs, and particularly in the art of working iron and copper. A great many hands are occupied in spinning thread, and weaving linen. The annual produce of the manufactories in the territories of Lünenburgh, Bremen, Osnabruck, Hoya and Diepholtz has been said to amount to 5,500,000 florins. People of both sexes are employed in spinning, and there are village girls in the district of Cell, who can spin in the space of nineteen hours, more than seventy-eight skeins of thread. But the linen manufactured in Hanover, is much inferior to that of Prussia and Friesland. There are many tan works in the country, yet the leather is not considered good. Jewels, lace and different articles of luxury are better made in Hanover than in many European countries.

Industry.

The carriage of exports and imports has been facilitated by excellent roads and by steam-boats that are every day ascending or descending the Elbe, the Weser, the Ems and the Aller. The transit trade with the north of Germany has risen into considerable importance. Among the large commercial towns, ought to be mentioned Munden, where three hundred and seventy vessels arrive annually by the Weser, a hundred and ten by the Werra, and a hundred and thirty by the Fulda. Seven hundred and fifty waggons pass every year along the roads that lead to the south-east of Germany, and a hundred and thirty-five along the roads that communi-

cate with the south-west of the same country. Some writers have calculated that the expense of exportation amounts annually to 450,000 dollars, or nearly L.67,000. BOOK
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According to Hassel the population was equal in 1822, Population. to 1,463,700 individuals; it was distributed in seventy towns, a hundred and seventeen burghs, eleven hundred and five villages or parishes, four thousand and twenty-four hamlets, and twelve hundred and eighty manors and farms. The surface of the country is not less than 1946 French square leagues, or 11,676 English square miles. There were more, therefore, than one hundred and twenty-six inhabitants for every English square mile.

Previously to the year 1823, the kingdom was divided into eleven provinces, but as these provinces were very unequally circumscribed, the country was divided in the same year into seven governments, which may be shortly mentioned. Political divisions.

The government of Hanover is made up of the ancient principality of Kalenberg, and the counties of Hoya and Diepholtz. It contains thirty-two bailiwicks and nine independent tribunals. Governments.

The government of Hildesheim, formed by the principality of the same name, those of Gottingen and Grubenhagen, and the county of Hohnstein, contains thirty-seven bailiwicks and twenty-five tribunals.

The government of Lunenburg comprehends the principality of the same name. There are thirty-seven bailiwicks and eight independent tribunals.

The government of Stade is composed of the dutchies of Bremen, Verden and the country of Hodeln. It is divided into sixteen bailiwicks and twenty-eight tribunals.

The government of Osnabruck comprehends, in addition to that principality, the counties of Lingen, and Bentheim, and the circles of Meppen and Emsbuhren. The number of bailiwicks is not more than nine.

* See *Neue Allg., Geog. und Statist. Ephemerid.* xiii. vol. first sheet, 1824.

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The government of Aurich is made up of the ancient province of East Friesland ; it possesses twelve bailiwicks, and five independent courts.

Lastly, the high council of the mines at Klausthal, holds the rank of a government, and extends its jurisdiction over the Upper Hartz (Oberhartz.) This concession was made to it on account of the privileges which the miners have enjoyed for ages. It possesses only one bailiwick.

Religion.

According to the calculations of Hassel, the number of Jews in Hanover amounts to six thousand seven hundred, and, according to Stein, to fifteen thousand, but the last number seems to be too great. It appears from the most authentic sources of information, which we have examined, that the number of Lutherans, or of those who adhere to the Augsburg confession, may amount to eleven hundred thousand, the reformed or calvinists to a hundred and twenty thousand, the catholics to two hundred and thirty thousand, the number of Jews to thirteen thousand, and of Mennonites to five hundred.

The Lutherans have their pastors, superintendents and general superintendents, who are subject to the consistories of Hanover, Osnabruck, Aurich, Hildesheim, Stade and Ottendorf. The calvinists have their ministers and consistories ; the catholics, their priests and bishops, under the direction of the archbishops of Osnabruck and Hildesheim.

**Property of
the church.**

The ancient chapters have been restored in the government of Hanover ; and all the monasteries and church lands, which were not sold during the foreign domination, are concentrated in the government of Hildesheim. A committee of the chapters has been instituted, whose office it is to collect the revenue of these lands, and to purchase such as were sold or alienated during the Westphalian government. The rental of these properties is added to a general fund, out of which certain pensions are paid, besides the expenses of the chapter, and whatever is connected with the catholic worship. The appointment of a committee to manage this fund was ratified by government in 1816, and since that period it has raised a loan on the se-

curity of the lands that are to be redeemed. But the proprietors, who are unwilling to part with their estates, may retain them by paying a sum that must be laid out in the endowment of universities, and other scientific institutions in the kingdom.

Hanover is an hereditary kingdom, independent of the crown of England. It is ruled by a governor general, a prince of the blood, who on any important affair takes the advice of the king at London, where his majesty may be assisted by a council of Hanoverians. But according to the constitution, if the crown of England passes to a female, that of Hanover belongs to the nearest male relative of the sovereign. The government of the kingdom is partly feudal and partly representative. The legislative department is committed to two chambers that assemble annually. But, according to a decree passed in 1814, several customs relative to feudal rights, which were abolished by the French government, have been renewed. The ancient laws and customs of the country, are also put into force, until a new code, which is at present forming, has been arranged. Justice is administered in the bailiwicks, the different tribunals, a court of chancery, and a supreme court. The Hanoverian army consists in time of peace of twelve thousand men, and the *landwehr* or militia of eighteen thousand. It appears from a law passed in 1817, that every individual without distinction of rank must enter the militia at the age of nineteen. An exception has been made in favour of clergymen, infirm persons, professors, military men who have served during six years, and only sons, who have lost a brother on the field of battle. The privilege of finding substitutes is only granted to students of divinity. The *landwehr* is reviewed every year, and detachments are exercised every Sunday, except in the time of harvest. The duties of a horse police are performed by the royal corps of provincial dragoons.

Having entered into some details concerning the productions, population, government and military establishment of Hanover, we shall endeavour to, describe its principal

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Hanover.

towns. Hanover or the capital is situated on a sandy plain at the confluence of two small rivers, the Leine and the Ihme; the first is navigable, and Hanover is thus divided into two parts, the Old and the New Town. The most of the houses are built of brick, and the new streets are spacious and regular. The Old Town was only a fortress in the year 1130, but in 1178 it obtained the rank and privileges of a city. The New Town contains about three hundred and fifty houses, a suburbs which consists of nearly five hundred. The population amounts to twenty-four thousand inhabitants. The elevation of the soil is not less than a hundred and twenty feet above the level of the sea. The neighbourhood of Hanover is adorned by fruitful meadows, picturesque scenery, and the Linden, a fine public walk. The town at a distance resembles a large garden, in which houses and steeples covered with plates of copper, are interspersed. The illusion is increased by the course of the Leine, that winds round the town. On approaching the city, it may be seen that the streets and houses are agreeably shaded with rows of poplar and lime trees. A great degree of activity is observable on the streets, and some of the buildings are remarkable for the elegance of their architecture, which contrasts well with the German and Gothic style of several ancient habitations.

Public
Buildings.

The finest public buildings are the palaces of the king and the viceroy, the arsenal and the opera. The temple of honour, or a monument erected to Leibnitz is no unworthy tribute to the memory of that great man. A Jewish synagogue, a French church and four others may be mentioned among the different places of worship.

Different
Establish-
ments.

Students and all those who devote their time to literature or science, may find Hanover no disagreeable residence. The society of natural history is entitled to celebrity from its labours and researches. The school of artillery and fortification is conducted on an excellent plan. The institutions by which the different branches of knowledge are diffused, are creditable to the authorities. The Lutheran gymnasium, the Jewish seminary and many

other schools are not the only proofs, which government has given of its solicitude for the happiness of the people. A normal school or a seminary for the instruction of those who are to become schoolmasters, may be considered a model of its kind. Both sexes are taught the useful branches of education, as well as the more superficial accomplishments. Thus, the instruction of a girl is not confined to ethics, religion, music and drawing, but extends to whatever is likely to be of use to her as the mother of a family. Boys are taught arithmetic, book-keeping, to draw plans and other branches of education, which on many occasions may be very useful. Their time is not wasted in learning what the world and its distractions are likely to make them soon forget; in France they are kept eight years at Greek and Latin, in Hanover, English and French, geometry and natural philosophy are essential parts of education, Hebrew and archæology are considered indispensable in the schools of divinity. The Georgian institution, in which nobles are educated, and those only who are to enter the army, has been conducted on such a plan as to qualify the pupils for holding civil as well as military employments. It might take up too much time to give an account of the different scientific collections in the town, from the museum of natural history, the antiquities and medals in the palace of the king to the public library, which consists of 200,000 volumes.

The useful arts are not in a very advanced state, but the commerce and industry of the town have rapidly increased since the peace, and it carries on at present a considerable trade with Bremen and Hamburg. We might mention its sugar works, distilleries, tobacco mills, porcelain and linen manufactories, and particularly its embroidery, which is sold for a high price in Germany.

The Germans in the neighbourhood of Hanover speak with admiration of the royal palace of *Vicinity.* ~~Hernhausen~~, Montbrilliant, the gardens of Walmoden, and other country seats belonging to different individuals. But these places, at which a stranger may look for a few minutes, hardly merit any description. Besides, caprice or bad taste seems to

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have prevailed so much in the different arrangements and ornaments, that few strangers admire them. One may wonder at the great size of the fountain at Hernhausen, which rises nearly to the same height as that at St. Cloud, but emits a much greater body of water. In majesty and grandeur the building is infinitely surpassed by Versailles. Little can be said of the regular and gloomy hedge rows in the different gardens, if it be not that they serve to remind us how much the uniformity of art is inferior to the variety of nature. It ought to be mentioned that the town of Hanover claims the honour of having given birth to Herschel.

On the banks of the Leine, and above its junction with the Ihme, is situated Göttingen, one of the most celebrated collegiate towns in Germany. Its population amounts to 11,000 souls, and its trade is chiefly confined to leather and woollen stuffs. But its fame depends wholly on its university, which was founded in 1734 by George the Second. Public instruction is carried to a great degree of perfection; the professors, of whom the number is not less than forty-two, are distinguished by their zeal and diligence; they are selected from the most eminent men *University* throughout Germany. Lectures are delivered on all the sciences and varied departments of literature; nearly sixteen hundred students matriculate every year, and in order to form good teachers or tutors for the students, the *senatus academicus* has under its direction a normal school, which is called the *Philological Seminary*. It need not, therefore, excite surprise if many distinguished men have been educated at this university. Much has been done to facilitate the means of acquiring knowledge. A library consisting of more than 400,000 volumes, formed from the collection of Leibnitz, who left there his numerous manuscripts, and which has been every year enriched by the best works on the sciences and arts, a fine collection of paintings, a museum of natural history, a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an observatory rich in valuable astronomical instruments, and, lastly, a royal academy of sciences, of

which the corresponding members are the most celebrated men in Europe, are so many incentives and encouragements to the students. There is also an excellent mercantile school at Gottingen. BOOK
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The town of Münden is situated on a pleasant valley Münden. at the confluence of the Weira and Fulda, which by their junction form the Weser. It is peopled by 5000 inhabitants, who derive considerable wealth from the produce of their breweries, tan works, cloth, tobacco and porcelain manufactories. Its trade is rendered very active by the navigation of the river.

Klausthal in the Upper Hartz, may be said to be the most important town in that mountainous district. It possesses a mint, its population exceeds 8000 inhabitants, and its soil is about 1950 feet above the level of the sea. The burgh of Hertzberg is the only place in the kingdom where arms are manufactured.

Goslar, which is situated in the same country, and to Goslar. the north of Hertzberg, was formerly a free and imperial town. It is built on the banks of the Gose, hence the origin of its name, and the same river at no great distance from its walls, throws itself into the Ocker. According to Dresser, it was founded by Henry the Fowler, and fortified, for the first time, in the year 1201.^p It is generally believed, that gun-powder was invented in the town by the monk Berthold Schwartz. Peopled at present by 5700 inhabitants; it possesses large breweries, vitriol works and founderies. Part of the population are employed at these works, and at the slate quarries in the neighbourhood.

The ancient town of Hildesheim is situated on the northern declivities of the Hartz, and in a sloping plain on the banks of the Innerste. It was an important town when Charlemagne introduced Christianity into these countries, and stained the gospel with the blood of the Saxons, whom Hildesheim.

^p Isagoge historica per millenarios distributa, et ad annum usque nonagesimum primum, supra mille quingenta deducta.

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he, massacred for the glory of a religion that inculcates charity and brotherly love. It contains at present 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are engaged in trade and in manufacturing cloth. It possesses twenty churches, twelve of which belong to the Catholics, and eight to the Lutherans of the Augsburg Confession. The cathedral is the most remarkable of these buildings, it is decorated with fine pictures, and a monument is observed in it, not unworthy the attention of antiquaries; we mean the pillar on which was placed the figure of Irmensul or Hermensul, a Saxon divinity, that is by some confounded with Hermes, and supposed by others to be the same as Mars. It was held in great veneration by the people, but when Charlemagne made himself master of Heresburg in 772, he put the inhabitants to death, sacrificed the priests on the fragments of the broken statue, and buried the pillar near the banks of the Weser. It was removed by Lewis the Debonair to the church at Hildesheim, and a large chandelier was placed on its summit; at present, however, as if to recal its first destination, it serves as a pedestal for a statue of the virgin.

Cell or Zell. Cell or Zell stands in a sandy plain at the confluence of the Fuse and the Aller; it is a town of 6400 souls, and the supreme court in the kingdom of Hanover is held there. It is adorned by several fine streets and squares, a large hospital and a castle surrounded with walls and ditches. But not the least ornament of the town is the monument erected to the memory of Catherine Matilda, Queen of Denmark, and sister of George the Third. There are several manufactories in Cell, the carrying trade of the town has been improved, and a great many boats ply on the Aller.

**Lunen-
burgh.**

Lunenburgh, an important town from its population, which amounts to 10,500 inhabitants, and from its being the capital of a government, is situated on the Ilmenau, a feeder of the Elbe. The monastery of St. Michael, the townhouse and the castle are nowise remarkable on account of their architecture. A Latin seminary, and an academy for the education of nobles are the only schools

founded by government. Extensive quarries of limestone, and salt pits are worked in the vicinity, and an immense number of bees are reared in the district. The town is a place of trade, but the principal exports are honey, wax, lime and salt.

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Stade, the metropolis of a government, is peopled by 6000 inhabitants, and has its gymnasium, orphan hospital, merchants' hall, and several stocking and lace manufactories.

Emden, the most commercial town in the kingdom, is situated on the right bank of the Ems, at its embouchure. The bay of Dollart renders its port of great consequence; many vessels are built every year in its dock yards, and most of them are sent to the whale and herring fisheries. The town carries on besides a trade in manufactured goods, such as tobacco, stockings and thread; its population amounts to more than twelve thousand souls.

Our description of Hanover would be imperfect, were we not to give an account of some of the islands on the coast, between the mouths of the Elbe and the Ems. Their names are *Wanger-Oog*, *Spieker-Oog*, *Langer-Oog*, *Baltrum*, *Norderney*, *Juist* and *Borkum*. Other islands are situated on the west of the mouth of the Ems, but these belong to the kingdom of the Netherlands. Encroachments have been made by the sea during six hundred years on the coasts of Hanover, as well as on those of Holland; traces of these encroachments are in some respects marked by the gradual enlargement of certain gulfs, particularly by that of Dollart, which was enlarged by an accession of water from the year 1477 to 1539, and finally obstructed by dikes and embankments. Such phenomena appear to prove that these islands formed at one time a part of the continent. Besides, that supposition is corroborated by a tradition common in the country, for it is generally believed that several villages built on coasts, which are at present destroyed, were buried under the waters. The same changes may probably happen in course of time in the islands that have been mentioned; at all

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events, it is thought that the water has been gaining on them. Thus, the opinion entertained by geologists, that the ocean has at several times invaded and abandoned the ancient continents, of which the ternary mountains exhibit the remains, is confirmed in this small portion of Europe. It cannot be doubted, that these sandy islands, threatened with future destruction, must have been formed in the depths of the ocean, and although covered with vegetation, and rendered habitable since that period, it is easy to observe the remains of terrestrial or fresh-water mollusca; the sea which covers them, afterwards depositing the remains of salt water or marine mollusca. Future observers may thus be enabled to trace the successions of marine and fresh water deposits, which are so often seen on lands that formed part of a former world. The islands consist of different downs that rise to twenty, and in some places to fifty feet. To render the sandy land, by which they are formed, more consistent, it has been thought right to naturalize different plants that grow easily on sand, as the *Elymus arenarius* and *Arundo arenaria*, (Linn.) The care of putting this wise plan into execution, for its efficiency has been acknowledged in similar situations, is committed to the magistrates, clergymen and schoolmasters. Borkum differs, however, from the other islands, in as much as in several parts of it, the land is rich and well adapted for agriculture. The spaces between them and the continent are so shallow, that they are almost dry at low tide. They are all inhabited, and those who live on them, rear cattle, and subsist principally by fishing and hunting.

Osnabruck. German antiquaries entertain different opinions both concerning the origin of this town, and the etymology of its name. It is certain that it was a place of some consequence in the time of Charlemagne. As to its etymology, some maintain that it was derived from Osenbrück (bridge on the Osen), and others from Ochsenbrück (bridge for oxen.) The Hase, however, not the Osen, as might be naturally inferred from the first derivation, is the small river, which

traverses the town. Osnabruck, now peopled by 10,000 inhabitants, was made the metropolis of a diocese by Charlemagne. It was in the same town that the celebrated treaty of Westphalia was signed in 1648 by the Swedish plenipotentiaries and the emperor. The portraits of the ambassadors are preserved in the townhouse. Notwithstanding the preponderance of the bishop, who was sovereign in the town, Osnabruck was one of the first places that embraced the reformation of Luther. There are at present two bishops of Osnabruck, a Catholic and an Anglican, the latter is generally a prince of the reigning family in England. The town was formerly fortified, as the remains of some ramparts indicate. It is however, with the exception of a few streets, ill-built; perhaps the finest street of any is the one that leads to the castle, a large edifice surrounded by a garden, and adorned with fountains. It is unnecessary to mention the silver coffins in which are deposited the remains of Saint Crispin and Saint Crispinian, they may be seen in the cathedral; but it may be remarked that there are several hospitals, a college, different public walks, and that the inhabitants carry on an extensive trade in linen.

We shall conclude our account of Hanover by giving a short notice concerning the state of its finances. Hassel informs us that the revenue in 1821 amounted to the sum of 11,700,000 florins, and the expenditure to 4,665,000. But the public debt is not less than 30,000,000 of florins, the interest of which at four per cent. is equal to 1,200,000. It may therefore be easily admitted that if government is desirous of paying off the debt, or improving the country, the sum in the treasury cannot be very considerable. It has been affirmed that the excess above the expenditure is sent to England, but it is more probable that all the revenue is expended in the country.

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EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Germany—Fourth Section—Prussian Provinces of the Lower Rhine—Principality of Neuchâtel—Reflections on the State of Prussia.

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COUNTRIES, which at no former period belonged to Prussia, were added to that kingdom by the last treaties; and whilst it was the professed object of these treaties to restore the ancient balance of Europe, a prince was placed on the throne of his fathers, but most inconsistently with that great and salutary principle, a town founded by Lewis the Fourteenth, was added to his dominions. The kingdom of Prussia, now more flourishing than ever, became on a sudden contiguous to humbled and degraded France. It seemed as if the high contracting powers were not so eager to bring back Europe to its ancient state, as to punish France for having ventured under a conquering chief to raise empires, found kingdoms, and dictate laws to sovereigns. We refrain from indulging in the political reflections which the present state of European geography is too apt to excite. But it is necessary to examine the new possessions of Prussia, and to calculate the advantages and disadvantages that are likely to result from them.

The provinces we are about to describe, consist of a country which the Rhine traverses from south-east, to north-west; its extent from north to south is about two hundred miles, and the mean breadth from east to west nearly eighty; its total superficies is not less than 18,566 English square miles, and its population is believed to be equal to 3,095,000 individuals, now that number,

if the inhabitants be supposed to be equally distributed in the country, gives upwards of 228 persons for every square mile, a result from which some notion may be inferred of the wealth and fruitfulness of these provinces. To these possessions must be added the principality of Neuchatel, of which the surface is not less than 234 English square miles, and the population amounts to 51,500 inhabitants. All these dependencies of the Prussian monarchy, equal in superficial extent to 13,800 English square miles, are peopled by 3,146,500 individuals. The route which we mean to follow in our description of them, may be traced from north to south, because it is towards the north that they are least remote from Prussia Proper.

The province of Westphalia comprehends the principalities of Munster, Minden and Paderborn, the territories of the Mark, Hohenlimburgh, Ravensberg, Pecklenburgh and Lingen, which, as well as the extensive districts attached to them, are so many possessions that Prussia has lately recovered. The same province is limited on the west and the north by the Netherlands and Hanover, on the east by Hesse, the principality of Waldeck, and the great duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt; on the south by the province of Cleves and Berg.

The country was in ancient times peopled by the *Bructeri*, *Marsi* and *Sicambri*, all branches of the Franco-Saxon stock. It appears from the statements of Tacitus and Strabo, that the *Bructeri* inhabited the lands between the Ems, the Lippe and the Rhine, while the *Marsi* occupied the present territory of Munster; and the *Sicambri* possessed the lands on the left bank of the Lippe.^a Of all these people the *Bructeri* were the most powerful; they were divided into two branches, the Great and Little *Bructeri*.^b

All the eastern and southern part of the province is co-Soil.

^a See Strabo, Book VII. chapter ii. Tacitus, Ann. Book I. chapter ix. *Moribus Germanorum*, 33.

^b See the learned work entitled *Germanien und seine bewohner*, by A. B. Wilhelm.

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vered with mountains, which form two distinct chains. The Ebbe mountains that extend from east to west, are the natural limits on the south. To these heights other mountains are attached, the Rothhaar, and the Egge, which extend from south-west to north-east to the distance of eighty miles. Several rivers descend from the chain, such as the Lenne and the Ruhr, that unite and throw themselves into the Rhine, the Lippe, that conveys its waters to the same river, and, lastly, the Ems, which, although of secondary importance, cannot be past over in silence.

**Geology of
the country.**

According to the observations of M. Omalius d'Halloy, the neighbourhood of Minden, like the calcareous land of Jura, belongs to the second formation. The country of Munster, and a great part of the land watered by the Ems and the Lippe, are formed by deposits similar to those in the vicinity of Paris. A secondary calcareous belt, of a formation analogous to chalk, extends between the Lippe and the Ems, over all the breadth of the province; lastly, the Ebbe, Rothhaar and Egge mountains make up a vast district, in which are observed granite, as well as other rocks of a date anterior to the formation of organized matter, and also several very ancient deposits containing organic remains.

**Mineral pro-
ductions.**

But if these different formations be examined more minutely, and additional light has been obtained by the scientific researches of M. Buch, it may be seen that a great part of the country is valuable from its mineral productions. Thus, between the Lippe and the Ruhr, the calcareous belt, which has been already mentioned, consists chiefly of compact limestone, near which other substances are found in abundance. The limestone rests on a vast deposit of coal, that commences near Essen and Mulheim in the province of Juliers, Cleves and Berg, and terminates at the base of the Rothhaar mountains, covering an extent of more than thirty miles in length. To the south of the coal, and in the granite lands are observed strata of primitive limestone, well adapted for different purposes in the arts, and also other calcareous deposits containing or-

ganic remains, and affording excellent lime. Enough has been stated to show that the mineral riches in the province of Westphalia, are by no means unimportant; we shall now give some account of its principal towns, and of whatever is most worthy of notice in their vicinity. BOOK
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The province is divided into three governments, of which the chief towns are Minden, Munster and Arnsberg. Minden, a fortified town, is watered by the Weser; it is important on account of its commerce, it carries on an extensive trade in wax, soap, tobacco, linen and woollen stuffs, and it is supposed that the produce of its sugarworks is worth annually about L.25,000. It is peopled by more than eight thousand inhabitants, and situated in a pleasant country; a bridge, six hundred feet in breadth, and twenty-four in length, has been built on the river, which flows past its walls. There are three catholic churches, two Lutheran and one Calvinist; the Catholic cathedral is more admired than any church in the town. Among the different institutions are a gymnasium, a normal school, an orphan hospital and a bible society. The salt springs of Frederick William, not far from Eidinghausen, are situated in the neighbourhood, and yield annually 1,383,065 of coarse salt, and 47,134 of a finer quality. The domain of Boehlhorst, from which an immense quantity of coal has been obtained, lies near Minden, and, lastly, in the vicinity of the same place, is situated the small town of Enger, in the church of which may be seen the monument that was erected in the year 1377 by the emperor Charles the IV. to the memory of Wittikind the Great.

Herford or Herforden is built on a low and marshy plain in the direction of Paderborn. It is a town of 6000 inhabitants, watered by the Werra and the Aa, and encompassed by old ramparts, now changed into gardens and public walks. There are seven churches in the town, a gymnasium, several spinning mills, and different manufactories. Bielefeld, which is sheltered by a hill, contains the same number of inhabitants as Herford, two Lutheran, a Calvinist and a Catholic church, a synagogue, an or-

BOOK CXX. phan hospital and a gymnasium. The linen that is exported annually, has been said to be worth 500,000 dollars. A great many of those tobacco pipes known in commerce by the name of *ecume de mer*, and made of carbonated magnesia, are sold in the town.

Paderborn. Paderborn is equal in population to both the two last towns; it is the metropolis of an archiepiscopal see, and the supreme court is held in it. It possesses a gymnasium and an ecclesiastical seminary. The principal source of the river Pader rises within its walls, and in the neighbourhood of the cathedral. At no great distance from the town near the forest of Teutoburgh, is situated the field of battle, where Arminius or Herman defeated the legions of Varus about the tenth year of the Christian era. *Roemerfeld* (field of the Romans,) the name of the hamlet, serves still to transmit the memory of the event. The rivulet called Bullerborn flows near the village of Altenbecken, it issues with a hoarse sounding noise from a mountain, and disappears shortly afterwards under ground. The ore, obtained from Mount Reh, is used in the iron works near the rivulet. The small town of Driburgh is situated at four leagues to the east of Paderborn, and on the eastern declivity of Mount Egge; it has been much frequented on account of its baths and mineral springs. At a short distance from it are seen the ruins of the castle of Iburg, which was destroyed by Charlemagne.

Munster. Munster, the metropolis of a government, the capital of a province, and the seat of a supreme court of justice, was formerly an important fortress. It is said that it was founded by Charlemagne, who, to bring about the conversion of Saxons that chose rather to die than become Christians, built in that situation a monastery, and the Latin word *monasterium* appears to have been the origin of its German name. But it is the opinion of others that the town was not founded before the eleventh century, and that it was originally called *Mimigardevordia*. If it be true that it was originally a convent erected in order to extend and diffuse Christianity, it is certain that it has expressed

more than once, its decided opposition to the temporal power of its sovereign bishop. The famous Bocoldus, surnamed John of Leyden, made himself master of the town in the sixteenth century: After the punishment of that fanatic, the townsmen wished to become free, but were compelled to submit to the authority of their bishop, and a fortress was erected to keep them in subjection. Munster is pleasantly situated on the Aa, which throws itself a short way below it into the Ems. A canal of the same name renders its commerce very active, and its population is considerable; Hassel supposes it nearly equal to 18,000 inhabitants, almost all of them are Catholics. It is at present the residence of an archbishop, and his chapter consists of forty canons. The town is well built, it contains ten churches; on the turrets of the church of St. Lambert are still seen the three iron cages in which John of Leyden and his two accomplices were confined. The conditions relative to the treaty of Westphalia were signed in the townhouse in the year 1648. The ramparts have been changed into agreeable walks. It possesses an university that is attended by four hundred students, more than a hundred of whom are foreigners. The other establishments, connected with the instruction and amusement of its inhabitants, are a botanical garden, an academy of painting, an anatomical theatre, a veterinary school, a German theatre, and two casinos.

At ten leagues from Munster is the small town of Bor-Boiken, which belonged to the prince of Salm-Salm, who changed his residence to Bocholt, and ceded the town in 1816 for an annual revenue of 22,000 florins. The two last towns are peopled by two or three thousand inhabitants, but there are other places which may be mentioned in the same government. Warendorf contains a gymnasium and 4000 inhabitants. Koerfeld, situated between two hills, is the residence of prince Salm-Horstman; the population amounts to 4500 individuals. Steinfurt, which belongs to the prince of Bentheim-Steinfurt, is watered by the Aa, and contains 2000 inhabitants; strangers resort to its

BOOK CXX. gymnasium. All these towns carry on a trade in linen and other manufactures.

Arnsberg. Arnsberg or Arensberg, the capital of a government, is a small town containing hardly 3000 souls. Built on a hill, and almost wholly encompassed by the Ruhr, its situation is mountainous and romantic. The river water is not of a good quality for domestic purposes, a better kind may be obtained, but not always in sufficient quantity for the wants of the inhabitants. Among the useful institutions are an agricultural society and a gymnasium. The industry of the people has been long confined to the distillation of spirits, and to a trade in potashes, of which the annual profits are said to amount to L.6250.

Soest. Soest is a place of much greater importance than Arnsberg, for it contains more than double the number of inhabitants. It has an imposing appearance at a distance, from its ancient ramparts and numerous turrets. The catholic and protestant clergymen live together on the most friendly terms, their example seems to prove the possibility of uniting the different Christian sects. Sermons are preached in the cathedral on one Sunday by Protestants, on the other by Catholics. It is not less true than remarkable, that in this town at least, difference of opinion on religious subjects, does not give rise to jealousy, animosity and the bad passions so common to churchmen. There are in Soest two convents, seven Lutheran churches, a Lutheran college and an hospital for the poor and orphans. Its commerce consists principally in cloth, leather and in the produce of the country in the neighbourhood.

Hamm. Hamm, situated at the confluence of the Asse and the Lippe, was surrounded with ramparts, most of which are now changed into public walks; it possesses a Catholic, a Lutheran, and Calvinistic church; its other institutions are an agricultural society, one of political and rural economy, and a gymnasium in which youth are well educated. The industry of the town has been chiefly directed to manufactories, bleaching cloth and dressing leather. A great quantity of bacon is every year exported

from it, principally to Holland. The population amounts to five thousand inhabitants. Unna carries on a trade in porcelain, beer and spirits; and it derives a great revenue from the salt springs of Brockhausen in the vicinity. The population is not less than 3500 souls, there are three churches and a gymnasium.

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Dortmund, formerly a free and fortified town, contains only at present 4500 inhabitants; A supreme council of the mines meet there, many pupils attend its gymnasium, there are not fewer than six churches, four belong to the Lutherans, one to the Catholics, and another to the Calvinists. The pins and different articles of cutlery that are made in the town, its breweries, spirit and vinegar distilleries, and lastly its hundred and fifty looms are said to return considerable profits. It may be remarked indeed that there are few towns or even villages in this government, of which the inhabitants are not engaged in some branch of industry. Iron and other metals are worked in the different places that have been now described. Hagen may be mentioned not only for its cloth and paper manufactories, but also on account of its iron works, from which are exported pitch forks, scythes, sickles and different implements of husbandry to the amount of L.8400, a sum not nearly so great as that obtained for its files, saws, knives, fire-irons, furnaces, anvils and coffee-mills. The small town of Schwelm, in which the number of inhabitants amounts to 2800 souls, a population not much greater than the preceding, carries on the same sort of trade, and possesses in addition linen manufactories, soap works, breweries and distilleries. Altena contains about 3400 individuals, there are not fewer than 104 mills in which iron wire is drawn; five hundred workmen are employed in making needles, pins and thimbles. The sum obtained for the articles exported, may perhaps exceed L.100,000. Iserlohn is situated on a mountainous and unfruitful district, but its wealth depends on the industry of its inhabitants; its population has never been supposed greater than 5400 souls, and the number of Lutherans may perhaps be equal

Dortmund.

BOOK to that of the Catholics. It appears from a statistical ac-
CXX. count that there are fifty-one mills for making that sort of iron wire, used in the machines for carding cloth, and more than a hundred workmen are employed in making coffee mills. It exports more than L.2200 in pins, and about L.9000 in copper garnishings for snuff-boxes, canes and other articles of a like description. Its metal buttons, buckles and chains are much prized; the copper, of which these different articles are made, is obtained from four founderies in the neighbourhood. Besides what has been already enumerated, the paper, velvet and silk manufactories of the same place might be mentioned. All these articles keep up the commerce of sixty mercantile houses, that correspond with France, Italy and different countries in the north.

**Other
Towns.**

The small town of Limburg or Hohen-Limburg, which is situated in the county of Bentheim-Tecklemburg, carries on the same sort of trade; nails form part of its exports. Olpe on the Bigge contains only 1600 inhabitants, but it possesses fifty forges for iron bars, about thirty for steel, fifteen white-iron manufactories and two copper founderies, in both of which, planchets for coining money are made, and in some years more than 3000 hundredweights of them have been exported to foreign countries. So much industry concentrated in a small town, where the different works are supplied with the metals obtained within its territory, has induced government to establish there a tribunal that presides over the mines. Siegen, a place of 3800 inhabitants, with a castle and public gardens on the banks of the Sieg, has been chosen for the seat of a royal tribunal; one of its buildings is a large gymnasium. Many forges and founderies have been built in the town, but there are also soap works, woollen, linen and other manufactories.

Stalberg.

The neighbouring country abounds with slate and mines of different metals. Mount Stalberg is situated at a short distance from the village of Mosen, it is almost wholly formed of proto-carburet of iron, or natural steel, which has been considered by good judges to be the best in Europe, for many purposes. The other mines that are worked in

the district of Siegen produce annually 700 marks of silver, 300 hundredweights of copper, and 400 hundredweights of lead. BOOK
CXX.

The province of Juliers, Cleves and Berg was formed by the ancient dutchies of Cleves and Gelder, by the principality of Moers, the counties of Essen and Werben, the great dutchy of Berg founded by Napoleon, and a part of the dutchy of Juliers. Province of
Juliers,
Cleves and
Berg. It is bounded on the west and the north by the Netherlands, on the north-east and the east by the province of Westphalia, and on the south by that of the lower Rhine. It has been divided into two governments, those of Cologne and Dusseldorf.

The German people, the ancient inhabitants of the province, may be mentioned on account of their connexion with the Romans, and the share they had in the wars, which Rome maintained against the countries that are watered by the Rhine. The *Ubi* and *Gugerni* were the most important of these tribes. The *Usipetes*, the *Tencteri* and *Sicambri* were settled on the left bank of the river. Some information may be obtained concerning these imperfectly civilized nations from the writings of ancient authors, and from the learned researches of M. Wilhelm.^c The *Ubi* whom Tacitus calls the *Agrippinenses* were the neighbours of the *Gugerni*.^d They inhabited the country, which now forms the territory of Moers. Exposed to the incursions of the Suevi, who exacted tribute, or threatened to destroy them, they were compelled to implore the assistance of Julius Cæsar, at that time stationed on the opposite bank of the Rhine. Ancient In-
habitants.

It appears too that they were induced, in consequence of new attacks on the part of the Suevi, to place themselves under the protection of Vespasian Agrippa, who granted them lands on the left bank of the river in front of their ancient territory. While they removed to their new country, they passed the bridge which had been built across the

^c Germanien und seine Bewohner, 8vo. pages 111, 114, 138, &c.

^d Tacitus, De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 28.

BOOK CXX. Rhine by Agrippa. If the Ubii were enabled to migrate, it was owing to the good intelligence that subsisted between them and the Romans ; at all events, both Strabo and Suetonius inform us that the Ubii were the faithful allies of the Roman people. It was in consequence of their alliance with Rome that they were involved in several wars against their neighbours, and it is not less certain that they preferred the Roman name of *Agrippinenses*, which they derived from the wife of Claudius, to the German one of *Ubier*, that denotes a people on the banks of a river, indeed every river in Germany was then called *Ob* or *Ub*.

Gugerni. The Gugerni were one of the German tribes whom Tiberius had permitted to settle on the left banks of the Rhine, eight years before the Christian era. They were the descendants of those Sicambrians, who in the time of Julius Cæsar, inhabited the country between the Sieg and the Lippe. The amount of their population was not greater than 40,000 individuals. They agreed before they migrated to their new country to defend it against the incursions of their neighbours on the opposite bank of the river. Their territory extended from that branch of the Rhine, which is called the Waal to the districts in the neighbourhood of Moers. These lands were formerly inhabited by the Menapii, who had a share in the revolt of the Batavii, under the command of Claudius Civilis. *Gugerner, their name, which the Romans changed into Gugerni, was derived, says M. Wilhelm, from *gairnjan* an old German word, which signifies to ask, and thus indicates that they settled voluntarily in the countries subject to the Romans.

Usipetes. The *Usipetes* were one of the earliest German tribes that the Romans met with on the left bank of the Lower Rhine. Compelled to fly from the incursions of the Suevi, they settled in the country about the fifty-sixth year before the Christian era. They continued formidable to the Batavii, until the time that Cæsar subdued and forced them to cross the Rhine. They retired to the south of the Lippe, the country which the Sicambri inhabited, not far from the lands

of the Tencteri, who had shared with them the dangers of their expedition, and the consequences of their defeat. BOOK
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Tacitus commends the cavalry of the Tencteri. "To ride well," says the historian, "was not neglected by the old, it was a source of amusement for children, and of emulation for youth. The horse was the only part of their possessions, that did not descend after the decease of its owner, to the eldest son, but was given to him who distinguished himself on the field of battle."^e

The Sicambri, who ceded part of their territory to the Usipetes and Tencteri, were a very powerful and numerous people in Germany. They were one of those tribes whom Pliny designates under the name of *Isthævones*.^f They were conquered by Drusus in the twelfth year before the vulgar era.

From the neighbourhood of Cleves to Cologne, the lands on both banks of the Rhine are for the most part of a later origin than the chalk formation. From Cologne to two leagues below Bonn, in other words, to the southern limits of the province, the ternary rocks extend over a breadth of more than five leagues on the left bank of the Rhine, while their greatest breadth on the opposite bank is little more than a league. On the same side may be observed the commencement of the volcanic lands and extinguished graters, which, in the neighbourhood of Coblenz, occupy a considerable extent on both sides of the river. On the left of the Rhine, or in the country between the Rhine and the Erft, that throws itself into it, and from the distance of a league to the north of Cologne, to nearly the same distance to the south beyond Bonn, a belt of land wholly composed of different kinds of sandstone and plastic argil or potters' clay, extends to the length of nearly twenty-six miles.^g Lastly, a few detached portions of the same belt are only observed on the right or opposite bank of the Rhine.

^e Tacitus, *De Moribus Germanorum*, sect. 32.

^f Pliny, Book IV. chapter 14.

^g Classification et caracteres des roches, par Brongniart.

BOOK
CXX.

Antiquities.

There are many ancient ruins and places of which the names still attest the power of the Romans; in this point of view the country is not uninteresting to the antiquary and historian.

Cleves or
Kleve.

The government of Dusseldorf shall be first described. Cleves or Kleve is divided into the high and low town; it is situated on the Kermisdal, at a league from the Rhine, and in the midst of a fertile country. It is built on the declivities of three hills, and its name appears to have been derived from the Latin word *clivum* (the side of a hill,) from which probably the Romans formed *Clivia*. It is peopled by 7000 inhabitants, who consist of 5000 Catholics, 1000 Calvinists, 800 Lutherans, 40 Mennonites, and 160 Jews. A gymnasium, a fine townhouse, and different manufactories, such as silk and woollen, have been built in Cleves. The town is surrounded by verdant hills, agreeable vallies, meadows and fruitful fields. A great many towns and villages may be seen in clear weather from the top of the tower, which commands the old town. The time that the tower was founded, cannot be ascertained, but it is said that it has stood since the third century before the Christian era, the accuracy of the statement, however, may be considered extremely doubtful. At the distance of less than a mile from the town, a large space of ground has been laid out into gardens, that many frequent on account of their agreeable situation and a famous mineral spring.

Nemus sacrum.

Reichwald, an ancient sacred wood; the *nemus sacrum* mentioned by Tacitus^h is situated in the territory of Cleves; it was there that Cladius Civilis excited the Batavii to revolt against the Romans.

Other
towns.

Emmerich on the Rhine is remarkable for a canal, which may contain about a hundred trading vessels. The town is peopled by 4400 individuals, it has its gymnasium and seminary. Wesel, which was a village in the beginning of the twelfth century, contains at present 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are occupied in different manufacto-

^h Tacit. Histor. lib. iv. sect. 14.

ries, by means of which an active trade is carried on with the Netherlands, so that vessels loaded with merchandise depart almost every day from its harbour on the Rhine to that country. The town is surrounded with fortifications, and defended by the fort Blucher, which rises on the left bank of the river. It possesses two Catholic parishes, a Lutheran and reformed church, a gymnasium, and a theatre.

Xanten or Santen contains a reformed and Catholic church, the latter is adorned with some valuable paintings by John Calcar. It is believed that the Roman town called Ulpia Castra was situated in its vicinity; and at a quarter of a league beyond it, near the village of Wisten, is the site of Vetera Castra, a town noticed by Ptolemy, and frequently mentioned in the writings of Tacitus, at least in that part of them, which contains the history of the rebellion of Claudius Civilis.¹ Although the historian informs us that at the approach of this chief, the ramparts and entrenchments were repaired, and all the buildings erected in the form of a town near the fortifications were demolished; the foundation and remains of an amphitheatre are still to be seen.

Antiquaries have discovered at some distance from these ruins, and not far from the village of Kellen; the position of Colonia Trajana, a Roman town. It is said too that the remains of a pretorium have been observed on the hill of Vorsten at a quarter of a league from Santen. It may be doubted whether the Colonia Trajana and a pretorium were built on these sites, but it is certain that the remains of Roman buildings, tombs, urns and baths have been discovered near them.

The small town of Geldern is remarkable for its town-house, a large and fine building. Moers or Meurs is situated on the Kemelt, at a league from the Rhine; its fortress was razed in 1764, its population amounts at present to 1800 individuals. It is built near the village of Asberg,

BOOK
CXX.Ascibur-
gium.

which is believed to be the ancient Asciburgium, a town, mentioned both by Ptolemy and Tacitus. The lions that now adorn the townhouse of Moers were dug from the ruins in the village. Among the other articles that have been preserved are two stones on which the names of two centurions are inscribed, several Roman tombs, vases, lamps, arms and medals. Kempen is not so much known from its castle, manufactories and a population of three thousand souls, as from being the birth-place of a celebrated Augustine, the author of the Imitation of Jesus Christ. Duisburg, which contains 4500 inhabitants, is pleasantly situated between the Ruhr and the Anger, at a mile and a half from the Rhine. The neighbouring country consists of woods and fertile plains. The principal buildings are an university, a gymnasium, an orphan hospital, and the fine church of Saint Saviour. It is a place of some importance from its cloth, linen and soap manufactories, of which the produce has been estimated at 100,000 rixdollars. The quantity of tobacco manufactured and exported every year, is supposed to be worth 150,000 rixdollars. The principal part of its trade is carried on with the Netherlands. There are two iron works and founderies in the neighbourhood from which 2,000,000 pounds of iron are obtained, and which supply a royal manufactory of arms. Crefeld has now become a flourishing town; the soil is marshy and ill adapted for agriculture, but it has been improved by the industry of its inhabitants, and the lands in the neighbourhood are at present covered with gardens, country houses and manufactories. Neuss, which is watered by the Erft, and contains 6000 inhabitants, is dirty and ill built. It is supposed by some that it was founded by Drusus. The capital of the province is situated in the vicinity, but on the right bank of the river.

Dusseldorf. Dusseldorf holds the first rank in the government; its wealth and a population of 26,000 souls, render it one of the most important towns on the Rhine. Its name was derived from the Dussel, a small stream that watered it, before it extended to the banks of the river. Dusseldorf was merely

a village at the commencement of the thirteenth century, when the Duke of Neuburg, elector palatine, fixed his residence there, and afterwards enlarged it. BOOK
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The greater part of it consists of three divisions or rather three towns built at different periods. The first is called *Altstadt* (Old Town), the second, *Carlstadt* (Charlestown), and the third, *Neustadt* (New Town). Its fortifications were destroyed at the time that the French republic was extending its victories on the banks of the Rhine. Ruins are all that remain of its castle, which was bombarded in 1794, but in the midst of these ruins, the spectator observes with amazement an entire statue of John William, sculptured in white marble by Coipel. The same sculptor made the bronze equestrian statue of the same prince for the great square, which it still adorns. The large street, in which many of the houses may be compared to palaces, is not the only one that can be mentioned for its regularity. The most remarkable public buildings are the mint, the barracks, two of its fifteen churches, the one that contains the marble monument erected to the memory of Duke John, and the other, which belonged formerly to the Jesuits. The useful establishments are an hospital, an academy of arts and trades, another of painting, a gymnasium, several libraries, an observatory, two colleges and a school of anatomy and surgery. The trade of the town is considerable, it consists chiefly in sugar, glass, silk and woollen stuffs. Different
quarters of
the town.

Elberfeld, which contains sixteen thousand inhabitants, among whom are seven thousand Calvinists, six thousand Lutherans, and three thousand Catholics, is situated on the Wipper, a feeder of the Rhine. It manufactures annually, about L.24,200 in lace, more than two thousand workmen are employed in weaving silk, and nearly an equal number in its linen and cotton manufactories. It has been said that a machine is erected in one of its works, by which, with the assistance of two persons, a hundred yards of lace can be woven in an hour. Among the other articles that are made, are a great variety of plated goods, and others of a metallic composition imitating sil-

**BOOK
CXX.**

ver. The capital of the different banks at Elberfeld has been supposed to be equal to L.13,480,000, these establishments are supported by the industry and commerce of the town.

**Neighbour-
hood.**

Stein remarks rightly, that the love of labour is so much diffused in the neighbourhood of Elberfeld, that not less than sixteen thousand persons find the means of subsistence on a surface little more than a German square mile, or twelve English square miles in extent.^k A thousand manufactories, mills or machineries have been erected on the plain through which the Wipper flows, and which is hardly six miles in length. Elberfeld and its environs, seem to form only a single city, but it is not less distressing than remarkable to observe the great number of poor and indigent persons in the midst of this industrious population.

Solingen.

The arms and cutlery of Solingen have been famous for the last five hundred years; it is peopled by 3500 inhabitants, and in the twenty-three manufactories in the town and neighbourhood, more than two thousand workmen have been for a long time employed in finishing swords, knives and different articles of cutlery. Its trade, though by no means improved by the last political changes on the banks of the Rhine, and the custom-house system which was then established, is still very considerable. *

Cologne.

Hassel does not suppose the number of inhabitants in Koeln, or Cologne, to be less than 56,400. Thus, its population is sufficient to place this metropolis of a government in the first rank among the towns on the banks of the Rhine. If Cologne was built like Dusseldorf, and peopled in the same proportion, it might be compared with the finest cities in Germany. But its narrow and dismal streets, its Gothic houses, some of which are built of brick, others of wood, and a very small number of stone, give it a gloomy and disagreeable appearance, that contrasts ill with the public buildings. The principal edifices are the

^k Handbuch, der Geographie und statistik, &c.

townhouse, which has been adorned with a double range of marble columns, the central school or ancient college of the Jesuits, the arsenal, the palace of the ancient electors, the church of St. Gereon, of which the cupola is much admired, that of the Minorites, not less remarkable on account of its portal, and lastly, the cathedral built in the thirteenth century, and which, if finished, might be the finest of any in Cologne. The interior of the cathedral is large and imposing; it is about four hundred feet in length, a hundred columns support the vaulted roof; and the choir, in which the elegance and boldness of the execution cannot escape notice, reaches to the height of two hundred feet. The church of St. Peter, where Rubens was baptized, is adorned with the fine painting representing the martyrdom of the apostle Peter, a painting that remained there until 1794, was then carried to the Louvre, and twenty years afterwards, brought back to Cologne.

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Some of the twenty churches in Cologne, contain a great number of relicks, that are held in veneration by a credulous people. Those in the cathedral are the bones of the twelve apostles, the cross of St. Peter, the magnificent shrine of Saint Engelbert, and the sarcophagus of the Three Magi, which is distinguished by the beauty of its sculpture, and the profusion of its ornaments. In the church of St. Ursula are preserved the supposed bones of that saint, and those of the eleven thousand virgins, her supposed companions, their skulls are arranged in order, round the walls of a small chapel within the church. These objects of popular superstition, the churches, of which the number was formerly twice as great, and the doors of the churches that are still beset by a crowd of mendicants, are likely to impress the stranger with no favourable notion as to the knowledge and education of the people in Cologne. It was believed that the Protestants form but a very small part of the inhabitants; it has been ascertained, however, that there are more than two thousand Calvinists. The industry of the town is insignificant in proportion to its population, a truth that may be confirm-

BOOK ed by the low state of its trade and manufactures.
CXX. There are however several scientific institutions, among others a college with a library of sixty thousand volumes, another library containing thirty thousand, a collection of philosophical instruments, a botanical garden, in which the number of plants amounts to four thousand, an anatomical theatre, a mineralogical museum, and an academy of painting. There are not fewer than twenty hospitals, an infirmary and a lunatic asylum, most of which were founded by charitable persons. It is unnecessary to say much of its theatre and other places of amusement. This town, encompassed with ditches and old walls, flanked with turrets, of which the extent may be equal to two leagues in circumference, is a place of great antiquity.

Oppidum It is supposed to have been the capital of the Ubii
Ubiorum. (*Oppidum Ubiorum*), of which the name was changed into *Colonia Agrippina* in honour of Agrippina, who was born within its walls, and who enlarged and improved them. Several remains of its antiquity may still be observed, among others, the ruins of an ancient Roman hall; the church of St. Peter was built on the ruins of a heathen temple; and the site of a Roman capital may still be seen.

Historical Cologne was styled a municipal town, and capital of
recollections. Second Germany in the reign of Claudius. The Romans were driven from it by Merowee, king of the Franks in the year 449; not long afterwards it was ruined by Attila, and again repaired and built by the Romans. Chilperic took possession of it, and it became the capital of the kingdom of Cologne, which continued until the time it was conquered by Clodowig or Clovis, who added and united the territory to France. The kings of the first race used to reside there; Charlemagne himself often preferred it to Aix-la-Chapelle. It was declared a free and imperial town during the reign of Otho the Great, in the year 957. It was surrounded with walls by the Archbishop Philip of Heinsberg in 1187. It entered into the Hanseatic league in 1260, and in the fourteenth century its archbishops were

raised to the electoral dignity.¹ Lastly, under the French usurpation, it was made the capital of a division in the department of the Roër.

The trade of Cologne consists in woollen stuffs, ribbons Trade. and porcelain, there are besides several distilleries, and the most important are those of the spirit which bears the name of the town; but that which contributes most to enrich it, is its harbour on the Rhine, for it is thus rendered the intermediate station of a considerable trade with Germany and the Netherlands. Rubens, Cornelius Agrippa and the founder of the Chartreux were born in Cologne.

Worengen, at some distance to the north of the last town, is built on the site of the ancient *Buruncum*, where a detachment of the seventh legion was quartered. Several Roman ruins are still observed in the neighbourhood.

Zulpic is the *Tolbiacum* of Tacitus, a town celebrated during the middle ages on account of the victory which Clovis gained over the Germans, and which was one cause of his conversion to Christianity.

Bonn or the ancient *Bonna*, opposite to which, according to Florus, Drusus built a bridge over the Rhine, is situated on the right bank of that river, about five leagues distance to the south of Cologne. The beauty of its situation induced the ancient electors to chuse it for their residence. Its population, says Hassel, amounts to 10,566 inhabitants; it is well built, and the streets are spacious. As to its public buildings, we may mention four of its churches, a townhouse of modern architecture, an hospital, a college and a theatre. Its castle, a large and elegant building, is now converted into an university, which was founded in 1818. It contains a library of 25,000 volumes, a museum of natural history, and other scientific collections.

An ancient monument, possessing considerable interest, may be seen on the square of Saint Remi. It is formed by a number of pillars, and consecrated to victory; the following words are inscribed on it, *Deæ victoriae sacrum*.

¹ Sainte Marthe, Gall. Christ, tom. I.

BOOK CXX. Some antiquaries consider it the *ara Ubiorum*, mentioned by ancient authors; but the subject has so much puzzled archæologists that none have hitherto ventured to determine whether it was originally erected at Cologne or Bonn.^m A large piece of ground near the town belongs to an agricultural school; the different nurseries and collections of plants in that establishment are laid out in public walks. The small town of Brühl is not more than two leagues distant from Bonn; its mineral springs are much visited, and it is also well known on account of the magnificent castle of Augustenburg.

Castrum
Trajani.

Antiquaries insist that Trajansdorf is the correct name of the small village of Traunsdorf at no great distance from Bonn. The number of Roman antiquities that have been found there, and other reasons render it probable that it was the Castrum Trajani. Bonn carries on a trade in coarse cotton, soap and nitric acid. Salmon weighing forty or fifty pounds are often exposed in its markets; they are taken in the Sieg, a small river that waters the town of Siegburg, situated about six miles from Bonn, on the right bank of the Rhine.

Province of
the Lower
Rhine.

The province of the Lower Rhine is mostly formed by the ancient French departments of the Roër, the Rhine and Moselle, the Sarre, and also by a portion of the department of Ourthe. It is bounded on the west and the north by the Netherlands, on the east by the governments of Dusseldorf and Cologne, the principality of Nassau, the great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, the landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg, the principality of Birkenfeld, and the circle of the Rhine, a Bavarian province; on the south by France. Its extent is about a hundred and thirty-eight miles from north to south, and sixty-four at its greatest breadth from east to west. Its surface is nearly equal to four thousand eight hundred English square miles. It is divided into three governments, of which the chief towns are Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblentz and Treves.

^m See G. Ghelen, de Admiranda sacra et civili magnitudine Coloniae, 1645. Memoires et notice de D'Anville sur les Gaules.

The Eburones and Treveri were the ancient German people, that inhabited the large forests in the province. BOOK CXX.

The former were scattered on both the banks of the Meuse, and their lands extended to the modern territory of Juliers. Ancient inhabitants. Eburones.

They appear to have been the most ancient inhabitants of the country, at least no mention is made of any others that possessed it before them. Their principal fortress is called *Atuatuca* in the commentaries of Cæsar. They acted an important part in the war against the Gauls, and gained under the command of Ambiorix, a complete victory over a Roman legion;^a but being defeated at a latter period by Cæsar, they gave up their country to the Tungri.

The Treveri were a powerful and warlike nation; Cæsar Treveri commends their cavalry, it was formidable to the Romans.^b The same people, says Tacitus, boasts of being sprung from the ancient Germans.^c They were one of those tribes, that long before the expedition of Cæsar into Gaul, crossed the Rhine, and settled in the fertile valley of the Moselle. The ancient date of their settlement in the country is proved, as M. Wittenbach remarks,^d by their advancement in civilization, at the time it was invaded by the Romans. They did not then wander in the forests, but exercised a sort of authority over the Nervii, Ubii, Tungri and Eburones, their neighbours. They were not ignorant of the arts, they built towns, and enacted laws.

Their government was an elective monarchy, in which the chiefs shared the power with their sovereign. The prince was supreme judge of his people; he was proclaimed and placed on a buckler, according to the custom of other nations in Gaul and Germany. An union or meeting of the nobles formed the senate of the Treveri, and that assembly retained its authority after their country was conquered by the Romans. The Roman senate, writing to that of

^a C. J. Cæsar's Commentaria, Lib. V.

^b Idem. *ibid.* Lib. II.

^c De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 28.

^d Abriss der Tririschen Geschichte.

BOOK Treves, about the year 225 of the Christian era, designates
CXX. it in the following way,—*Senatus amplissimus curiæ Tre-
viorum.*

Manners
and cus-
toms.

Every man in the nation was bred to arms. A coat of armour was their *toga virilis*, war was the only road to dignity and preferment. They entered so much the more eagerly into battle, because to defend their habitations and country, was considered the most sacred duty. Persuaded that the divinity directed and assisted their efforts, the Treveri kept their arms and standards in places consecrated to the Gods. It is probably for the same reason, that during war, the priest of the city, as Tacitus informs us, had a right to punish the guilty, and to send them before the sovereign judge.* According to the religious notions of the same people, bravery was the only virtue, which was rewarded after death. The Treveri inhabited a portion of that country, which the Romans called *Gallia Comata* from the long hair of its inhabitants.

Appear-
ance,
costume.

Like other German nations, they were distinguished by their fair complexion and long hair, divided in front, and falling on each side of the face. Some few had their hair knotted or bound at the crown of the head, and all of them wore long beards. The body was covered with a short and broad tunic, over which a woollen mantle was thrown. The dress of the women differed chiefly in its length from that of the men; but their tunics were without sleeves, their shoulders and arms were not covered. Such are the principal facts that can be collected from the writings of the ancients, concerning the Eburones and Treveri. The territory situated between the countries of these two people, was inhabited by the Condrusi and Cœresi, who are mentioned by Cæsar, and who were in some respects under the government of the Treveri.†

Soil.

Geologists have observed many different kinds of land and rocks in the province of the Lower Rhine. At its

* *Sacerdos Civitatis*, de *Moribus Germanorum*, sect. 10.

† *Commentaria*, Libri II. et VI.

northern extremity are ternary deposits, or those of the last formation, similar to others in the vicinity of Paris. BOOK CXX.

To the north of Aix-la-Chapelle, these deposits are succeeded by streaked and other varieties of sandstone, plastic argil and coal; an immense deposit of gneiss extends on the west, and coal and intermediate calcareous rocks on the east; lastly the masses of sandstone, which are known in Germany by the name *quadersandstein*, are found in the south, and are surrounded by intermediate limestone. From the south-east of Aix-la-Chapelle, or the neighbourhood of Malmedy to the Eysel mountains, the land abounds in schistus and sandstone, in the midst of which a belt of calcareous rocks stretches from north to south.

The country to the north of the Moselle, including all the eastern part of the province, and the districts beyond the Rhine, has most excited the attention of geologists. That region is formed by different chains of volcanic mountains, that rise near calcareous rocks, such as were formed in the depths of the primitive ocean, which has left so many traces on the surface of the earth. Volcanic mountains.

The most important of these chains is the Eysel (Eysel Gebirge); many of its volcanic summits are remarkable on account of their height; from one of them, the Kyll, a small river descends southwards and throws itself into the Moselle. Eysel Gebirge.

But before the traveller can arrive at that country, still marked with the action of subterranean fire, he must traverse large downs covered with heath in the neighbourhood of Monjoie between Eussen and Malmedy. Goldberg, from which a very extensive horizon bounded by conical summits, presents itself to the view, is the first volcanic mountain that can be seen after passing the heaths. At every step the stranger takes in this region, he perceives vast craters or mountains, that seem to have emitted lava at different periods. Such at least is the opinion of M. Steininger,† and it must be Heaths.

† Bemerkungen ueber die Eysel und Auvergne.

BOOK confessed, if these heights be compared with the Puy-de-
CXX. Dome, that his opinion is not improbable.

Juliers. We shall commence our account of the different towns with that of Juliers or *Julieh*, which although it contains only three thousand inhabitants, is important from its commerce, its cloth and ribbon manufactories. That small city is besides well known from its antiquity. Ammianus Marcellinus speaks of it,^u and it is called *Juliacum* in the itinerary of Antonine.

Aix-la-Chapelle. Aix-la-Chapelle or Aachen, the capital of a circle, and the chief town of the province, contains according to Hassel, thirty-three thousand six hundred inhabitants. But that number was not equal to a third part of its population during the period of its splendour, at the time when the German emperors were crowned there, and made it occasionally the place of their residence. It was then enriched by its trade and industry, but strangers are only attracted to it at present by its mineral waters, which, together with its cotton and muslin manufactures, and its trade in watches and jewellery, form the principal source of its wealth. Some authors, endeavouring to prove its ancient origin from the antiquities which have been found in it, and from its Latin name, *Aquæ-Grani*, maintain that it was founded by Sernius Granus, who lived in the time of Hadrian. It is more likely that the merit of having founded it, is due to Charlemagne, for before the fifth century it was only a Roman bath or an insignificant town, which was wholly destroyed by Attila. The old ramparts have been changed into public walks, some of the streets are broad and regular, and several public buildings are too remarkable to be past over in silence. The townhouse, flanked with turrets, is not inferior to any in Germany. Lewis the Debonair, Charles the Fifth and other sovereigns were crowned in one of its halls. All its churches are very ancient; that of Saint Ulric has been admired for the height and symmetry of its arches; it may be remarked

^u Liber XVII. sect. 2.

too that one half of it belongs to the Lutherans, and the other to the Catholics. The interior is adorned with several paintings by Cranach and other celebrated masters. The finest organ in Germany has been supposed to be the one in the Church of the Franciscans. Few buildings can be compared with the cathedral, both on account of its windows, its thirty colossal columns, its bronze portal, and the magnificence of its Gothic architecture. It was built by Charlemagne, the white marble chair is still preserved on which that emperor and the princes, who succeeded him, used to sit.

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Many relics, of which the authenticity may be doubted, *Relics.* are presented every seven years to the veneration of a superstitious people, and to a number of pilgrims that crowd together on these occasions. Some of the articles exhibited are the robe of the Virgin Mary, the swaddling clothes of Jesus, the bloody linen on which the head of John the Baptist was exposed, and the cincture worn by our Saviour at his crucifixion. The people, one would think, can hardly be at present deluded by such impositions. The skull of Charlemagne, who was buried in the cathedral, may still be seen. His sword, baldrick, and book of the gospels are preserved in the town house, and at every coronation of an emperor, they are sent to the city where the ceremony is to take place. The buildings added to the town since the Prussians obtained possession, are a mint and redoubt of solid architecture with an exterior surrounded by arcades. The places of amusement are a German theatre, a concert room and a casino. The literary and scientific institutions are not important; they consist of an academy of sciences, a college, a school of drawing, and a collection of models relative to the arts and trades. A gallery of paintings is the most valuable collection in the town.

The neighbourhood of Aix-la-Chapelle has been much *Neighbour-* admired; the land, though not fertile, is well cultivated, and *hood.* the public walks are laid out, with great taste; that of Mount Lewis is the most frequented. The small town of Burtscheid is situated in the immediate vicinity; it is peopled by four

BOOK thousand six hundred inhabitants, who carry on a trade in
CXX. cloth, needles and other articles. The road that leads to the town, the beautiful valley on which it is built, the warm springs that may be discovered at a distance, from the vapours they exhale, the streams that supply the different manufactories, and the ruins of an old castle, part of which is now converted into an inn, form together a fine landscape in the neighbourhood of Burtscheid.

Marcodurum. Düren on the Roer, is not inferior to the last town in the number of its inhabitants; its trade consists principally in cloth, ribbons and soap. A statue of John Nepomucene, a saint whose memory was held in veneration, has been erected at Düren. The same town appears to be the Marcodurum that is mentioned in the annals of Tacitus. A number of iron works, and eight paper mills are situated in the vicinity.

Eupen. Eupen is a town of ten thousand inhabitants, and the most industrious amongst them are the descendants of the French protestants that fled from their country after the revocation of the edict of Nantes. Cloth is the most important of its manufactures, the others are leather, soap and paper. Malmedy carries on a lucrative trade in leather; its population amounts to four thousand individuals.

Different towns. Neuweid, a small town not much more populous, but much more industrious than the preceding, stands on the opposite bank of the Rhine. Household furniture, hardware and different articles of cutlery, amounting in weight to fifteen hundred tons, are exported from it every year. A number of antiquities has been collected in a castle belonging to the prince of Neuweid, which are by so much the more interesting from the circumstance that all of them were found on the site of a Roman camp in the vicinity.*

Monument to General Hoche. The village of Weisselthurm is situated in the neighbourhood of the same town. It is there that a monument was erected to the memory of General Hoche, whose ashes are deposited on the left bank of the Rhine, not far

* See Mr. Hofman's work. *Grundriss des Römischen castel bey Neuweid, nebst andern Denkmälern*, in 8vo, 1803.

from Andernach, and near the grave of Marceau. Ehrenbreitstein or Thal-Ehrenbreitstein in the neighbourhood of Andernach, is a small and well built town of two thousand inhabitants; at no great distance from it are the ruins of a Roman bridge, and the hill, on which the important fortress stood, that the French took and destroyed in the year 1799. The same fortress, now in ruins, was defended by a very large piece of ordnance, which has been since removed to the arsenal of Mentz.

A flying bridge, constructed across the Rhine, and Coblentz. which moves every quarter of an hour, leads from Ehrenbreitstein to Coblentz. That capital of the province, situated on the river, at the junction of the Moselle, is encompassed with extensive fortifications, to which additions have been made by the Prussians since 1814. It contains fourteen thousand inhabitants; the streets are straight and regular; none of its edifices have been so much admired as the palace, which was built in 1799 by the elector of Treves, who made it his residence. Of its sixteen churches, fourteen belong to the Catholics, one to the Lutherans of the Augsburg confession, and another to the Calvinists. A synagogue has been built by the Jews. The principal institutions are a college, a seminary and a mount of piety. It possesses a large theatre, its quays are well constructed, and the stone bridge on the Moselle may be considered one of its finest buildings.

Coblentz was the ancient Confluentes, of which mention Confluentes. is made in the itinerary of Antonine, and by Ammianus Marcellinus.* The same place during the western empire was the residence of a military engineer, who took the title of *Praefectus militum defensorum*.† Its commerce consists chiefly at present of Moselle wine, grain, wood and coal. The neighbouring country is well wooded, and abounds in romantic scenery. Teinstein at a short distance from Coblentz, has been much frequented for its mineral waters.

But about twelve miles to the north-west, is situated the Antunna-cum.

* Liber XVIII. c. 2.

† Notit. Imp. Occident.

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small town of Andernach, the *Antunnacum* of the ancients. It contains several remarkable ruins, as the gate of Coblenz, the bath of the Jews, a Roman building, and the palace of the kings of Austrasia. In its church are deposited the remains of the emperor Valentinian. The town stands on a volcanic hill about six hundred and sixty feet above the level of the Rhine, and near the embouchure of the Nette. It carries on a considerable trade in the different volcanic products with which the whole adjacent country was at one time covered; its tufa is much used by the Dutch in constructing their dikes and embankments, and its lava millstones are not uncommon in many parts of the continent. The immense rafts of naval timber, obtained from the German forests, and destined principally for the different ports in the low countries, pass by the immediate neighbourhood of Andernach.

Lake of
Laache.

The lake of Laache is situated at three miles distance to the south-east of the last town. It is about thirteen hundred acres in superficies, and nearly two hundred feet at its greatest depth. From the lava that surrounds it, and its oval form, it appears to occupy the site of an ancient crater. It is fed by forty springs, and it has never been known to freeze during the most severe winter. Pike of a very large size, and several kinds of fish are taken in it.

Baudobrica.

No town of any consequence can be observed in the country between Treves and Coblenz, all those on the banks of the Moselle are small and insignificant; there are two, however, on the left bank of the Rhine, which ought to be mentioned. The first is Boppard, peopled by three thousand inhabitants, and containing three churches, a college, cotton and linen manufactories and several tan yards. Antiquaries believe that it stands on the site of Baudobrica, one of the five citadels built by Drusus, in which was stationed a prefect of the balistarii, (*Præfectus militum balistariorum*). The other town is Kreuznach, it is peopled by six thousand eight hundred inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade in sugar made from beetrave. Two

salt works are situated in its vicinity; from which more than 500,000 pounds of salt are annually obtained. BOOK
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Treves, which is called Trier in Germany, is surrounded Treves. with a great many monuments and ruins, that attest the importance and splendour of the town when it bore the name of *Augusta Trevirorum*. Augustus conferred on it the title of capital of second Belgian Gaul, and Ammianus Marcellinus, wishing to describe its extent, population and edifices, calls it the second Rome. It was ruined at different times by the Huns, the Goths, the Vandals and the Franks, and has as often been rebuilt. But it has lost the rank which it held in ancient Germany; its population at present is not greater than fifteen thousand souls. There are many fine walks in the neighbourhood; it is situated in the middle of a fruitful valley. The streets are broad and straight, and some of the public buildings are imposing. It carries on a trade in different kinds of linen and woollen stuffs, leather and beetrave sugar. Its university, founded in 1455, retained its reputation for a long time. The antiquities which it contains, have tended to promote the study of archæology. The museum is very valuable, and the library not less so, particularly in manuscripts and editions of the fifteenth century; the number of volumes amounts to seventy thousand.

According to a popular tradition, which originated in Antiquity
of Treves. a monkish history of the thirteenth century, Treves was founded by Trebeta, the son of Minus, thirteen hundred years before the foundation of Rome. Other fables equally ridiculous are related concerning its antiquity. It is not improbable, however, that the Trevi possessed a place of some importance long before the Christian era, or in other words, a number of scattered cottages, which no more resembled a city than the habitations of some savage hordes in North America. Tacitus,^a Ausonius^b and Dion Cassius^c make frequent mention of Treves. The most ancient Roman monument is perhaps the bridge on the

^a Hist. Lib. IV. and V. &c.

^b Mos. V. 10.

^c Lib. XVI.

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Moselle, a bridge that has of late years been the subject of a memoir ; M. Wittenbach supposes it was built in the twenty-eighth year before the Christian era by Vipsanius Agrippa. It appears to have been the same bridge that is described by Tacitus.⁴

Gate of
Mars.

The gate of Mars (*Porta Martis*), or the Black Gate is another building more important though less ancient than the last, for the same learned antiquary believes it to have been founded in the time of Constantine the Great. Two arcades on the ground floor, two stories adorned with columns and arched windows, two square turrets, forming a third story in the same style, render this monument, which by no means resembles a triumphal arch, less remarkable for its architecture than its state of preservation. All the different objects of antiquity that have been found in the town, are collected in this vast building. The gate of the baths (*thermæ*), that appears to have been finished after the third century ; serves as an entrance into Treves. It is likely too that the square tower which rises above it, does not belong to a more remote epoch ; it is a fort or *propugnaculum*. Lastly, the edifice, which has been supposed the palace of Constantine, and which was more probably attached to the baths, for the imperial palace was situated near the bridge, is in a very entire state, it has for a long time been used as barracks.

Churches.

Many of the churches in Treves are large and well built, some of them may serve to recal the wealth of the convents to which they were attached. The cathedral is generally believed to be the most ancient, but it has rather the appearance of a fortress than a church. The eye is fatigued with the great profusion of ornaments and statues. The church of our Lady is remarkable for the lightness of its Gothic architecture, and those of Saint Paulinus and Saint Maximin, although of modern date, are adorned with fine paintings.

⁴ Lib. IV.

It is not only within the town of Treves that many ruins and antiquities give us some notion of Roman splendour ; the site of an amphitheatre may be seen beyond its walls ; among the vines, which now grow on a soil that has been trodden by gladiators, are the remains of the vaults where wild animals were kept before the combats. It was in the same place that Constantine, who was long revered as a saint, ordered several thousand Frank or French prisoners with their chiefs Askarich and Ragoys, to be torn by wild beasts. To gratify the emperor, other spectacles of the same sort were renewed at different times, and he gave them the name of *ludi Francici* or the French games.*

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hood.

The ruins of a Roman way between Treves and Reims are observed at some distance on the road which leads to Luxemburg. But perhaps the most curious monument, which the Romans have left in all the country of the Gauls, is the one at the village of Igel in the same direction and on the same road. Antiquaries have examined it in vain, and the purpose for which it was erected, is still doubtful. It is a sort of quadrangular tower, terminated in the form of a pyramid, and surmounted by a terrestrial globe, on which an eagle rests. Ausonius says, that like the pharos of Memphis, it rises above every other building. If it be the tower that he alludes to, some allowance must be made for poetical licence. Its height, it is certain, is less than seventy feet, and its breadth is not greater than fifteen. It is stated in a letter, published in 1824, and addressed to Vauquelin, the celebrated chemist, that the monument is crowned by a genius with extended wings, kneeling on a globe. The author of the letter is probably mistaken, or if his statement be correct, it proves the ignorance of the German architect, who was appointed by government to repair the tower.† We examined it carefully before it was repaired, and could easily distinguish an eagle in the same position as on several medals. It is

Monuments
at Igel.

* See *Abriss der trierischen geschichte* by Wittenbach.

† *Lettre sur quelques antiquités peu connues en France à M. Vauquelin, membre de l'institut ; par M. Raymond, ancien professeur de l'université.*

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Purpose for
which it
was erected.

well known that the head of the eagle was destroyed by a canon ball in 1675, during the engagement in which the Marshal of Créquy was defeated on the plain of Treves. As to the purpose for which it was erected; it appears to us to have been a monument raised to the memory of the dead. It cannot be denied that a learned German is of a different opinion; he supposes that it was intended to record either the birth of Caligula, or the marriage of Constantius Chlorus with the empress Helen.^s It is not improbable that an ornament on one of the bas-reliefs, the figure of a man offering his hand to a woman, has originally led to this supposition. But it may be mentioned that the same opinion has been formerly maintained and refuted. The dances and games of the different genii with which the tower is decorated, as well as a figure of the shepherd Paris, are not incompatible with the design of a funeral monument. A mutilated inscription, which has been explained and restored by antiquaries, leads us to conclude that the tower was built by two members of the *Secundini* family in memory of Secundinus Securus, a wealthy merchant, the founder of Igel, during the latter part of the fourth century.^h

Different
towns.

No large towns are situated between Treves and the southern extremity of the province. Sarreburg or Saarburg, is a small town of two thousand inhabitants, with a bridge on the Sarre; the streets are dirty and ill built. The picturesque course of the Sarre is confined by steep and rugged rocks. The village of Mettlach is situated at some distance above the last place, on the banks of the same river. In its vicinity are the remains of a fine ab-

^s Account of the monuments at Igel by Neurohr, a German work.

^h The following is the inscription, as it has been explained and restored by M. M. Neller and Cloten in 1788, and quoted by M. Wittenbach in his history of Treves.

D. T. Secundino Securo, qui locum Aegla vocatum fundavit primus, cum Secundino Aventino ac filiis Secundini Securi et Publicæ Pacatæ conjugis Secundini Aventini, et Lucio Saccio Modesto et Modestio Macedoni filio ejus judici, Secundinius Aventinius et Secundinius Securus parentibus defunctis et defuncturis, sibi vivi, viæ hujus reintegratores posuerunt.

bey that belonged to the Benedictines. Sarrelouis was BOOK
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 built in 1680, and fortified by Vauban; one of its squares
 is large, and most of the streets are well arranged. Be-
 fore the last treaties, this town formed part of the district
 of Thionville, and it contained four thousand three hun-
 dred inhabitants. Hassel, whose ordinary accuracy on
 such subjects cannot be disputed, estimated its population
 in 1819, at six thousand nine hundred and seventy-two
 individuals. But however much it may have flourished
 under the Prussian government, it is difficult to suppose
 that the population could have almost doubled within the
 course of a few years, and that a town, of which the length
 from one gate to another, is not more than five or six hun-
 dred paces, and which is besides, so much confined by
 fortifications, could hold so many inhabitants. The import-
 ant iron works at Dilling are situated in the vicinity.
 Sarrebrück, or Saarbrück, which in point of the space that
 it occupies, is larger than Sarrelouis, does not, according
 to the calculations of M. Hassel, contain so great a number
 of inhabitants; for it appears from his statistical tables,
 that the population does not exceed six thousand four hun-
 dred persons. The streets are large and regular, and its
 public buildings, of which the most remarkable are a Pro-
 testant church, a gymnasium and a theatre, are modern
 and of good architecture. It is united by a fine bridge to
 the town of St. John, which has now become its suburbs.
 Mount Halberg in the neighbourhood, was probably the
 site of a Roman town, the *Pons Saravi*, that is mention-
 ed in the itinerary of Antonine. There are a few ruins
 still left, to which the peasants have given the name of the
 old heathen chapel (*die alte heiden capelle*). Sarrebrück
 carries on a trade in iron, instruments of agriculture, and
 in coal from the neighbouring county.

A small hill at a short distance from Solsbach emits Burning
hill.
 flames and smoke. As it contains a coal mine, its com-
 bustion, which may be attributed to the decomposition of
 sulphuretted iron, is not very extraordinary, at least other
 examples of the same kind might be mentioned. Those

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who visit it, remark that the schistous blocks, of which the hill is composed, are so hot that they cannot keep their hands on them for any length of time. The same rock is in many places calcined, and the shrubs that grow on them, are stunted, and of a yellow foliage. How widely different are such phenomena from those that volcanic mountains exhibit!

Towns.

Although all the towns in the province of the Lower Rhine, have been mentioned, it is necessary to notice the circle of Wetzlar, a dependence on that province, from which, however, it is more than fifteen miles distant. Its territory, surrounded by the states belonging to the princes of Nassau and Hesse Darmstadt, is nearly a hundred and eighty English square miles in superficial extent.

Wetzlar.

Wetzlar, situated at the confluence of the Dell and the Wetzbach into the Lahn, contains about four thousand seven hundred inhabitants; its trade consists chiefly in leather. Braunfels, another town in the same circle, which is attached to the government of Coblenz, possesses a strong castle, and a population of more than thirteen hundred persons. The country, in which both these places are situated, is so rugged and mountainous, that the use of every sort of carriage is rendered impracticable. If the circle of Wetzlar be ill calculated to awaken the attention of an historian or geographer, it may gratify the readers of Werter, who may there visit the tomb of Charlotte, and the different places and sites connected with that story.

Small districts.

The burghs of Wandersleben and Muhlberg are situated in a small territory of about fifteen square miles, surrounded by the duchy of Saxe Gotha, and dependent on the government of Erfurt. Another territory attached to the same government, and somewhat larger than the last, for its surface is about forty-two square miles, lies in the midst of the principalities of Saxe-Weimar, Schwarzzenburgh and Reuss. The burgh of Rhanis or the most important place in the district, may contain about seven hundred inhabitants. Lastly, the town of Suhl with a population of five thousand five hundred individuals,

is built on a district under the government of Erfurt. The inhabitants carry on a trade in arms. The lands in the same territory, which forms a part of a mountainous country, called the forest of Thuringia (Thuringer-Wald), are not less than a hundred and fifty square miles in extent; they are surrounded by the four principalities of Saxony, and also by those of Schwartzenburg and Hesse Cassel.

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But Neuchatel in Switzerland; a Prussian principality, Neuchatel. is more remote than any other from Prussia Proper and the Prussian possessions on the Rhine.

That principality, which the Germans call Newenburg, is bounded on the north by the canton of Bern, on the east, by the same canton and the lake of Neuchatel, on the south by the canton of Vaud, and on the west by France. Its greatest extent from north-east to south-west is about twenty-nine miles, and between twelve and fifteen from west to east; its surface, as has been already remarked, is equal to two hundred and thirty-four square miles, and the population to fifty-one thousand five hundred inhabitants. Some account shall be now given of its soil and climate.

That part of the Jura chain in which it is situated, Soil. abounds in mineral, sulphureous or ferruginous springs, and in different calcareous or silicious rocks, mixed with organic remains of the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The mountains in the canton of Neuchatel are not so lofty as in the neighbourhood of Geneva. Six or seven vallies, some of which, such as those of Rutz and Travers, afford rich pasture, make up the greater part of the land. The plains are more fruitful in wine than in corn, and the inhabitants are obliged to purchase from their neighbours more than 300,000 florins worth of grain.

The sale of the red wines produces a revenue of 180,000 Produce. florins, which added to that derived from the fruit, lint and cattle, furnishes a net profit of 60,000 florins. It derives also a considerable profit from the fishings on its lake, from the copper and iron mines in the high country, and from the Swiss tea and vulnerary herbs that are collected on its mountains.

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As to its climate, the canton of Neuchâtel may be divided into three distinct regions. The best vines and the best crops of hemp and lint are raised on the lowest and most temperate region, or the one along the banks of the lake. A range of mountains separates it from two lofty vallies, which extend from north-east to south-west; different sorts of grain are sown on them, and they yield excellent pasture. The third or most elevated region is covered with wood, heath and pasture. The inhabitants of the high country are exposed to a cold climate, and oats are the only grain that can be produced in the district. Spring and autumn are of short duration; winter lasts seven or eight months of the year, the snow rises often to the height of the houses, and almost as soon as it disappears, the severe frosts of winter are succeeded by a scorching summer.

Industry.

It might be concluded that this region, exposed from its height to the temperature of northern climates, was inhabited by an ignorant, poor and superstitious people. Few countries however are peopled by more enlightened, and it might be added, more wealthy inhabitants.

The arts of engraving and watch-making have been cultivated on these mountains with great success. Almost all the population in Locle, one of the highest towns, are employed in working gold, silver and steel for watches and different articles of cutlery. The art of the watchmaker appears to have been unknown there before the year 1680. John Richards, a mountaineer, when about fifteen years of age, saw a watch for the first time, he examined it, tried to make another like it, and succeeded after repeated efforts. Thus, a humble peasant by his example and persevering genius, was the means of introducing a source of wealth into his village, that has since been extended over all the vallies of Jura. Chaux de Fond, formerly a small village, now an important town, carries on a considerable trade in watches, musical boxes, and different articles; its elevation is still higher than that of Locle. It was the birthplace of the Drozes,

two brothers, who were both celebrated mechanicians. The same kind of industry, and the same activity are observable at Couvet Travers, and other places. BOOK
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It is difficult to assign any limits to the inventive genius of man; some notion may be formed of what it can achieve by visiting these mountains. Peasants wishing to improve their condition, and increase their enjoyments, sought and found in the depths of the earth, an immense addition to the productive power of their hands. The inhabitants on the chain of Jura had long remarked that the water produced by rain and melted snow, enters crevices even on the highest summits, by which it descends in subterranean channels to the base of the mountains, and forms springs or rivulets. The subterranean beds were discovered after deep excavations had been made; ingenious works were constructed to prevent the earth from filling up the cavities, the channels were enlarged at a great expense, in short, mills and machinery were erected by which their labour was facilitated and abridged. Thus, an advantage was derived, that could not be obtained from the springs that escape occasionally from the mountains into the elevated plains. In a territory where the inhabitants are so industrious as in the canton of Neuchatel, it need not excite surprise, that five thousand six hundred persons are employed in weaving lace, three thousand three hundred workmen in making watches, a great number in engraving, and about seven hundred in painting and dyeing the linen and cotton goods of the country. The quantity of these goods has been estimated at sixty thousand pieces; the number of watches at a hundred and thirty thousand, they are exported into Germany, Italy, Spain, Turkey and even America.

The ancient inhabitants of the country, that now forms the principality of Neuchatel, were those Helvetii who are mentioned by Cæsar in the first book of his Commentaries. Ancient inhabitants. It may be as well to defer what we have to say concerning them until we treat of Switzerland.

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Neuchatel.

The commercial town of Neuchatel, which in ancient documents bears the name of *Novum-Castrum*, appears to have been originally a fortress that the Romans erected to defend themselves against the attacks of the Helvetic nation. It is built in a circular form on the banks of the lake of the same name, and at the mouth of the Seyon, a small river that crosses the town, and discharges itself into the lake. The number of inhabitants amounts to five thousand. It is adorned by four principal streets and a large castle. The gymnasium, several public schools, the townhouse, the orphan and two other hospitals, as well as an agricultural and economical society have been founded by two respectable and wealthy merchants, natives of the town.¹ Neuchatel has experienced several great calamities, and it might have been completely ruined, had it not been for the industry and patriotism of its citizens. It was taken and sacked by the emperor Conrad the Second, in the year 1033; it was burned by Henry, bishop of Bale and count of Neuchatel in 1249; it was almost wholly consumed by a conflagration in 1450; a great part of it was much spoiled by an inundation of the Seyon in 1579, and, lastly, the whole street that communicates with the castle was destroyed by a fire in 1714. In order to provide in some measure against the chances of fire, insurance companies were established in the year 1811.

Lake of
Neuchatel.

The lake that washes the walls of Neuchatel adds so much to the beauty of the neighbouring country, that it may be right to describe it. It is not much less than twenty-four miles at its greatest length, and about six at its greatest breadth. The level of its waters has been found to be nearly a hundred and sixty-four feet above the lake of Geneva, and about one thousand and sixty-three above the Mediterranean. Saussure measured its depth at a mile and a half to the south of the town, and found it to be three hundred and twenty-five feet. The surface of the lake must have been at one time much larger than

¹ M. M. David-Tury de Lissabon, and J. L. de Pourtalès.

at present; that fact may be proved by the marshes on the south of the town, near the river Orbe, by a tradition which many believe, that Yverdun stood formerly on the banks of the lake, although it is now several hundred yards removed from it, by the sand still found at some distance from its banks, which is in every respect the same as the sand in the lake. The diminution of surface may be attributed to the alluvial deposits carried down to the mouths of the rivers and streams by which the lake is fed. It is easy to discover among the pebbles and sand in these deposits that rise like downs near the banks, the same sort of shell-fish as those that still exist in the lake.

We have already taken notice of Locles and Chaux-de-Fonds on account of the industry of their inhabitants, the former town contains five thousand nine hundred individuals, and the latter four thousand three hundred. Wal-lengin situated on the Seyon, and surrounded by a romantic valley, was formerly the chief town of a county. The number of cities in a territory so mountainous and confined, is no indication of its wealth. Three towns, as many burghs, sixty-seven villages and as many hamlets are peopled in the proportion of one thousand three hundred and forty-six persons for every square league, or upwards of two hundred and twenty-four for every English square mile, and as there are comparatively very few mendicants or paupers, a better proof of the prosperity of the country cannot be adduced. Erfurt is the only government in the Prussian dominions that can be compared to Neuchatel in point of population.

To what causes can the wealth and activity that prevail in this canton, be attributed? Is it to that turn of mind, which leads the inhabitants to examine and discuss every subject connected with their rights, and which made them adopt by a plurality of voices, the reformation preached to them by Farel? It may be remarked that Lauderer and Cressien, are the only catholic parishes in the country. Can it re-

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CXX.

Other
towns.

Causes of
prosperity.

* See Musée des Protestans célèbres, tom. II. Iere. partie. (Notice sur Farel.)

**BOOK
CXX.**

sult from the civil and religious liberty they enjoy, or from the circumstance of the canton not having been invaded by any hostile force for several centuries, or lastly, from the inhabitants being exempt from every onerous tax, impost and contribution? It cannot be denied that so many and so great advantages have contributed to produce that emulation, which is the best security against the corruption of the people, that love of labour and desire of freedom, by which the diffusion of knowledge is promoted, and that spirit of union by which those engaged in the same pursuits are bound together.

Language.

The sudden conversion of the inhabitants was in a great measure owing to Farel being a Frenchman, for the French is the only language generally understood in the country.

**Govern-
ment.**

The canton of Neuchatel, although it forms a part of the Swiss confederation, acknowledges as its sovereign the king of Prussia, whose influence, it must be admitted, is very inconsiderable. When Mary of Orleans, wife to Henry of Savoy, duke of Nemours, and sister to the last heir of the house of Longueville, the reigning family in the principality, died without issue in 1707, many claimants to the title of prince of Neuchatel, repaired or sent their representatives to the sovereign court in the country. Frederick the First of Prussia was elected as the nearest heir to the family of Chalons, of which the ancient counts of Neuchatel were vassals.

Liberty.

But not an article in consequence of his election, was changed in the treaty of Westphalia, by which the independence of the different states that composed the Helvetic confederation was secured. Neuchatel enjoyed its privileges, and retained them even when it was bestowed on a French Marshal by the imperial government in 1807, and at a later period, after it was ceded to Prussia by the congress of Vienna. The king of Prussia receives only the revenue of some domains, and a very moderate land-tax, that cannot be augmented. The inhabitants, who choose the military profession, may enter into the service of any state,

provided it be not at war with Prussia, for the king is prince of Neuchatel ; it is certain that there are comparatively very few of the people in the Prussian army. No customs are levied, no duties are imposed on any goods that enter or leave the territory. Every profession and every trade are free ; so vigilant have the inhabitants been in defending their rights, that justice is not administered in the name of the prince, and neither he nor his deputy, who represents him, can prosecute criminals, although the one or the other may save the life of a condemned person, or commute his punishment.

We have now completed the account of the provinces, which, on both banks of the Rhine, and in the mountainous countries where the Doubs takes its source, are governed by the descendants of Frederick the Great. When that prince made himself master of Silesia, when availing himself of the troubles that agitated Poland, he enlarged his dominions at the expense of that unjustly dismembered state, what would he have said, had it been announced to him that thirty years afterwards, his successor was to experience all the calamities of war, and a great portion of his dominions was to be ceded to an ambitious conqueror, that at a later period the kingdom was to be extended beyond its ancient limits, and the prince reinstated by the kings, his allies ? The mind of Frederick might have been elated at the prospect of the future greatness of his country. But it is necessary to examine the additions made to the kingdom, and to consider its resources. It forms a considerable extent from the banks of the Niemen to those of the Elbe, from the sources of the Oder to the shores of the Baltic ;—the centre of its power,—the kingdom of Prussia proper. But if the conquests made by Frederick the Second, some portions detached from Poland, and the provinces taken from Saxony by the last treaties, be added ; does it follow that the power of Prussia has been much increased ? Many reasons might induce us to think otherwise ; it cannot be denied that the preponderance of Prussia over the Germanic confederation is now greater than it ever was at

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any former period. But Russia, her most formidable neighbour, has been increased in the same manner; she may either therefore be in some sort dependent on that colossal empire, or unite her destinies with those of Austria, and have to dread the armed hordes that may inundate the west from the countries in the north. The possessions of Prussia on the Rhine, however important they may be in point of commercial wealth, do not augment its power in proportion to their population. It must be long before the people in these countries can forget that they are not Prussians. Their commerce has been so much injured since they were separated from France, that all of them regret the separation.

If the tranquillity of Europe be again disturbed by any political commotion, if France in particular take an active part in the struggle that might ensue, Prussia, obliged to divide its forces in order to keep in obedience the remote and scattered countries within its dominions, could no longer calculate on the heroic energy, its inhabitants displayed in the wars against Napoleon, because it refused those institutions and improvements, suited to the spirit of the age, and promised and claimed by the enlightened part of the population. Prussia might then exhibit the spectacle of a body weakened by a too rapid growth, and be unable to maintain herself in the menacing attitude, that might be expected from the extent of her territory. It has been already seen that the canton of Neuchatel is politically of no use to the Prussian monarchy, neither can the influence which it possesses in that part of Switzerland, be considered of any advantage, or at all events, if any can accrue, it can be only to its commerce. But if we reflect that all the provinces subject to Prussia, extending from east to west from the banks of the Niemen to those of the Sarre, are not much less than eight hundred miles in length, and equal to three hundred and twenty-five at their greatest breadth from south to north, while at their mean breadth, they are not more than a hundred; if besides it be considered

that several foreign princes, such as the duke of Saxony, the prince of Schwartzburgh, and the prince of Lippe possess more or less extensive territories surrounded by Prussian states, that some parts of the same monarchy, as the territories of Rahnis, Suhl and Wetzlar, are situated in the midst of other foreign possessions, it may be concluded that a country elongated out of all proportion, and irregularly intersected, that remote and scattered lands unequally arranged in relation to the influence which ought to emanate from the capital to the other parts of the kingdom, and lastly that a surface so considerable as that of Prussia, which is equal to more than eighty-two thousand eight hundred square miles, are rather to be considered the elements of weakness than of power.

BOOK CXXI.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Germany—Fifth Section—Kingdom and Dutchies of Saxony, Electorate of Hesse, Great Dutchies of Hesse-Homburg and Hesse-Darmstadt, Principalities of Lippe-Detmold and Lippe-Schaumburg, Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt and Reuss; Dutchies of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg, Anhalt-Cöthen and Brunswick; Principalities of Waldeck and Nassau.

BOOK CXXI. THE country that we are about to enter, forms part of central Germany. It might be difficult to describe it uniformly, from its many political divisions; in order, therefore, to avoid the confusion that might arise, if we attempted to give an account of the different contiguous principalities, it may be better to arrange all the twenty-one states that form the country, into divisions comprising the territories of the different princes that are related to each other by consanguinity or family connexions.

We shall proceed then in the following order;—the kingdom and the dutchies of Saxony; Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Homburg and Hesse Darmstadt; the principalities of Lippe-Detmold and Lippe-Schaumburg; those of Schwartzburg-Sonderhausen, and Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt; the principalities of Reuss; the dutchies of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg and Anhalt-Cöthen; lastly, the dutchy of Brunswick, the principalities of Waldeck and Nassau.

Ancient inhabitants.

Although the limits of the country possessed by the early inhabitants, cannot be made to correspond with the

limits of the dutchies and principalities, into which this portion of central Germany has been divided, it is not less BOOK
CXXI. necessary to make some remarks on its ancient population. They formed seven principal tribes, the *Cherusci*, the *Chassuarii*, the *Chatti*, the *Sedusii*, the *Sorabi*, the *Suevi* and the *Venedi*.

The two banks of the Weser within the confines of the The Cher-
rusci. territory that now forms the principality of Lippe-Detmold, together with some dependencies on electoral Hesse-Cassel, were in ancient times inhabited by the Cherusci and Chassuarii. No people in ancient Germany, says M. Wilhelm, have maintained their independence with more courage, and acquired greater renown in the wars against Rome, than the Cherusci.^a It was the same people that contributed most to the defeat of Varus, but upon them, as Strabo informs us, the signal vengeance of Germanicus fell.^b They were defeated by him, and among the persons that followed in his triumphal entry, were Semiguntus, the chief of the Cherusci, and Thusnelda, his sister, the wife of Hermann or Arminius their general, who had cut in pieces the three Roman legions.

The Chassuarii or Chasuari, as Tacitus calls them, or Chassuarii. the *Attuarii* according to Ammianus Marcellinus,^c were a wandering and warlike people, that often ravaged the frontiers of the Gauls, before they were subdued by Julian.

It appears from what Tacitus^d says of the Chatti or Catti that they inhabited the country between the banks of the Ohm, a feeder of the Fulda, and those of the Upper Elbe, in other words, Electoral Hesse, the dutchy of Saxe-Weimar, and a part of the kingdom of Saxony.^e According to Pliny, the nation of the Hermiones was made up of the Cherusci, the Suevi and Hermunduri. It may

^a Germanien und seine Bewohner nach den Quellen dargestellt, p. 190.

^b Liber. VII. cap. ii. sect. 4.

^c Book XX. ch. 10.

^d De Moribus Germanorum, sect. 30. and 31.

^e Libr. IV. cap. xiv.

BOOK be worth while to mention the account given of them by
CXXI. Tacitus.

Account of
 the Catti
 by Tacitus.

The Catti were distinguished from the other Germans by their strong and muscular limbs, their warlike appearance, their courage and intelligence. Educated to war, judicious in the choice of their chiefs, zealous in obeying them, making it a point of honour to maintain their ranks, skilled in avoiding the snares of their enemies, ready to avail themselves of favourable opportunities, they defied the inconstancy of fortune, and confided in their courage. Their whole strength consisted in their infantry. The other Germans, says the historian, knew how to fight, the Catti knew how to make war. As soon as they arrived at the age of manhood, every man allowed his hair and beard to grow until he had slain an enemy on the field of battle. The bravest amongst them wore an iron ring, a badge of ignominy and slavery, which was not taken off before they had vanquished a foe. Careless of wealth, prodigal of what belonged to others, their time was not spent in cultivating the land, building houses, or enclosing fields.

Sedusii,¹
 Sorabi and
 Suevi.

The Sedusii inhabited the country between the Rhine and the Maine, that forms part of the great duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt; they entered the coalition, which, under the command of Ariovistus, resisted the arms of Cæsar. The Sorabi possessed part of Saxony; the Suevi extended from the banks of the Elbe to those of the Oder; they had therefore more than a third of the kingdom of Saxony, but it is difficult to determine the limits of their territory, both because they were a wandering people, and because the ancients designated by the name of Suevi different nations of a common origin. Tacitus says they were distinguished by their hair being bound and knotted on the crown of their head.² Strabo mentions that they inhabited the lands from the Rhine to the country beyond the Elbe; Ptolemy places the *Longobardi*, *Suevi*, *Angli* and *Semnonēs* in the same region.

When the intercourse between the Romans and the Su-

¹ Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 38.

² Liber. VIII.

evi became more frequent, it was found that they were not so numerous as had been supposed, for those who were formerly confounded under that general denomination were better known, and made themselves at last formidable to the Roman power. The Suevi extended their territory on the Rhine in the fifth century; and the lands in Saxony, on the right bank of the Elbe, were about the same time occupied by the Venedi or Wendes.

It was the descendants of the Catti and Suevi who, under the name of Saxons, acquired in the middle ages so much reputation in war. They resisted during several centuries the kings of France, who during the reign of Clovis, and a long time afterwards, were the most powerful princes in Europe. Hengis, a Saxon king that flourished in the fifth century, having collected some hordes from the banks of the Weser, sailed into England, and took possession of the island. They invaded Spain in the year 409, under the command of their prince Hermeric. Having made themselves masters of part of Belgium, in the sixth century, they carried on a long and tedious war against Thierry, Clotaire I, and Clotaire II, and continued in possession of that country. Charles Martel made war against them during twenty years, Pepin during ten, and Charlemagne was unable to subdue them until after a struggle that lasted thirty-two years.

Part of the country that belonged to the same people, forms at present the kingdom of Saxony, formerly a dutchy and electorate, now raised into a kingdom, which was founded about twenty years ago by Napoleon. Its territory was greatly diminished in consequence of the resolutions passed at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. The surface of the kingdom is little more than five thousand six hundred and forty square miles. It is bounded on the north and the east by Prussia, on the south by Bohemia and Bavaria, and on the west by Prussia and the dutchies of Saxony. Its greatest length from east to west is about a hundred and twenty-five miles, and its greatest breadth from south to north nearly eighty.

BOOK
CXXI.

Soil.

The southern part of the kingdom is formed by the branches and declivities of a mountainous chain, the Erz-Gebirge or Hartz-Wald, that extends eastwards to another range, the Riesen-Gebirge. A line drawn at a short distance below the summit of the Erz-Gebirge, may be considered the natural limits of Saxony, which are contiguous to those of Bohemia. It is hardly necessary to take notice of the analogy that subsists between the names of Hartz-Wald or Erz Gebirge, and the country of the Hartz that has been already mentioned, for it is well known that it formed a considerable portion of the vast Hercynian forest that was so celebrated in ancient times. The chain of the Erz-Gebirge is nowhere very lofty; the Schneekopf or Snow-head, the most elevated summit, is not higher than three thousand five hundred feet above the level of the sea; the others are Mount Auers, which is about three thousand two hundred and fifty, the Laufche, about two thousand six hundred, the Drechsler, about two thousand five hundred and twenty, the Gochwald, about two thousand four hundred and seventy, and the Guthhaus, which rises to the height of two thousand three hundred and forty feet.

Geological
structure.

These mountains are in general composed of granite, and the greater number of them are covered with gneiss. M. Leonhard,^h who observed that the western declivities are for the most part steeper than the eastern, informs us that towards the south-west, as well as in the opposite direction, or in the neighbourhood of Frieberg, they appear to rest on an immense base of granite. But at their eastern extremity, the granite is covered with rocks of a more recent formation, such as compact limestone and strata of sandstone or *psammites*. In other parts of the chain, the granite rests on talc mixed with beds of schistus, with which it is in some places covered, and which in others serve as a support for the gneiss. Thus the Erz-Gebirge, like many other chains, are composed of granite that appears

^h Charakteristik der Felsarten.

to belong to different epochs. Micaceous schistus fills up a large space in the centre of the chain, and extends to the western extremity; it rises to the summits, and forms the top of the Schneekopf. That rock, which has been called *pegmatites*, and which is composed of quartz and feldspath, forms, according to the observations of M. Bonnard, a distinct group.¹ Lastly, hills of sandstone are situated at the eastern extremity. M. Daubuisson observed on the Saxon mountains basalt that did not appear to him to be of volcanic origin.^k It would follow, therefore, that the name by which they are known in Saxony, is inapplicable; but that geologist has of late modified his opinion on the object.

A porphyritic rock descends below the mountains, and it contains anthracites, a combustible substance, which may be seen in the neighbourhood of Lischwitz and Frankenstein. The coal formation extends in the country between Schneeberg and Planitz, and some schistous rocks that have been observed on the plains adjoining Leipsic, descend from the Erz-Gebirge, sink below the ground, and are covered with porphyry, that assumes the form of isolated heights, the bases of which are surrounded with the sand and argil on the plains.^l

The Erz-Gebirge abound so much in metals of different kinds, that they have been correctly denominated the *Metallic Mountains*. The working of the mines furnishes employment to a numerous population. The art of the miner is best understood in this part of Germany, indeed it has been there changed into a science by the labours and discoveries of distinguished men. It was at Freyberg that the celebrated Werner founded a geological chair, an individual to whom the science was so much indebted, that before his time it might have been called a chaos or

¹ Essai géognostique sur l'Erz-Gebirge, 1816.

^k See Journal de physique, tom. LVIII.

^l See Traité de géognosie, tom. II. pages 601, 602, &c.

BOOK at best the art of making systems to which their authors
CXXI. gave the pompous title of theories of the earth.

Climate.

The climate in the kingdom of Saxony is dry and temperate, the mountainous region is only exposed to severe winters; one may travel in a sledge in the high country a long time after the snow has disappeared on the low grounds. It is stated in the work of M. Engelhardt, that wheat, oats and potatoes begin to thrive in the mountainous districts, while asparagus is ripe on the plains.^m The temperature is mildest in the neighbourhood of Leipsic and in the lowest parts of the kingdom. It might be proved that the climate is salubrious from the fact that the number of deaths is not so great as in neighbouring countries, and from the number of persons who have arrived at an advanced period of life.

Agricultural produce.

The people engaged in agriculture are intelligent, the land is of a good quality, and the produce must necessarily be considerable. The breed of sheep has been greatly improved, numerous flocks are reared, and their wool, which is much prized, forms an important branch of commerce. Several agricultural societies have been established, and by their means the breed of horned cattle and horses, and even the rearing of bees are encouraged. To improve the culture of vineyards is the principal object of other societies of the same nature. The wine is of a good quality, but the quantity is not sufficient for the consumption. The grain harvests are also inadequate, but the deficiency is by many supplied with potatoes, a plant for which the country is well adapted. Esculent vegetables and fruits are abundant, and in some districts, hemp, lint, hops and tobacco yield good harvests.

Produce of the mines.

The mineral productions of the country are much more important than those of its fruitful soil. The raw material, on which it is necessary to add the expense of working, has been calculated to be worth L.291,660. The mines of Ausbringen are supposed to make up L.102,083,

^m Handbuch der Erdbeschreibung des Koenigreichs Sachsen.

of this sum, and those of Freyberg L.15,000; the other useful metals, worked in the neighbourhood of the same town are not less abundant. The quantity of fine silver annually obtained from its mines, is estimated at L.116,700. It has been computed that nine thousand workmen extract every year, three hundred quintals of copper, eighty thousand of iron, ten thousand of lead, two thousand five hundred of tin, and more than five thousand of arsenic. The numerous workmen collect annually, according to Stein, nearly one million, two hundred thousand quintals of sulphur, alum and nitrate of potash. The same chain abounds in white quartz, amethysts, agates, jaspers, garnets and kaolin, to the fine quality of which must be attributed the superiority that the Saxon porcelain has long maintained over every other in Europe. Lastly, several extensive coal mines are worked in the Saxon territory, but the most important are those in the neighbourhood of Dresden, from which an annual revenue of L.50,000 is derived.

The Saxon manufacturers are not destitute of activity or zeal, they have made several improvements by which the produce of their industry has been increased. Among the different articles that are manufactured, linen, silk, cotton and woollen stuffs might be specified, the others are lace, ribbons and muslin, straw and paper hats and musical instruments; its porcelain and earthen ware are considered the finest in Europe. A great number of hands are constantly employed; it was calculated a few years ago that more than eight hundred thousand individuals were occupied in making these different articles. Twenty-five thousand were engaged in manufacturing cloth, five thousand in making straw hats, fifty thousand in working metal, and in cotton spinning alone, nearly four hundred thousand.

The perfection attained in manufacturing different articles, cannot be wholly ascribed to the industry and intelligence natural to the Saxon nation. Government has for more than twenty years used every means to assist the ef-

BOOK
CXXI.

Industry.
Manufactures.

Societies.

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forts of the people. Premiums and rewards are not only bestowed on the inventors of useful machines, but medals and sums of money are given to the most able workmen. Societies have been instituted with a considerable capital at their disposal, and it is employed in accomplishing these ends. These societies offer rewards for the solution of such questions as may tend to make manufacturers and agriculturists more enlightened concerning their own interest. It has even been proposed to attain such an object

- that some imposts and duties should be abolished.

Commerce. The trade of Saxony is very extensive, and it is not less certain that by the judicious measures of government, a great impulsion has been given to commerce. Stein calculates the value of the whole inland trade to amount to 12,000,000 of rix-dollars, or L.2,700,000. The capital circulated in the three great fairs that are held in Leipsic, is not supposed to be less than 18,000,000 of rix-dollars, or L.4,050,000. A considerable revenue was formerly obtained from the salt mines, but as the territory in which they are situated, was taken from Saxony by a decision of the congress at Vienna, it has been stipulated that Prussia, which is at present in possession of the country, shall deliver annually 2500 quintals of salt at a price sufficiently moderate to enable the Saxon government by this monopoly, and without raising the duty, to derive the same revenue that it possessed before the treaty of 1815.

Govern-
ment.

The government of Saxony is monarchical, the king is major at eighteen years of age, and every office, whether it be civil or military, is filled up by the sovereign. But all the nobles in the kingdom are not equally subject to the prince; several lords levy contributions within their domains, a third part of which can only be claimed by government. The states are partly formed by the deputies whom the provinces appoint, but the sovereign only can dissolve and call them together. It generally happens, however, that they assemble at Dresden every six years. The states are composed of three orders; the clergy, nobility and members deputed by towns. They regulate the

taxes and imposts, and deliberate on the laws that the king submits for their decision. BOOK
CXXI.

The revenue of Saxony amounts to 11,000,000 of flo. Revenue.
rins, and the national debt in 1820, was not more than
32,000,000.

The army is composed of a regiment of guards, three of Army.
infantry, one of cavalry, one of foot artillery, two brigades
of horse artillery, a battalion of light horsemen, and two
companies of veterans. The total force amounts to 13,300
men, and the contingent of the king to the Germanic con-
federation, to 12,000. Every man from eighteen to thir-
ty-one years of age may be liable to the military service,
but many pleas of exemption are urged and sustained.
The towns possess national guards, consisting of all the
citizens who can afford to equip themselves, none are ex-
empt from the service before the age of sixty. Patrols of
horse police are stationed on the principal roads in the king-
dom.

The German spoken in Saxony, is said to be more Language,
Religion.
pure and correct than in any other part of Germany. Al-
most all the Saxons adhere to the confession of Augs-
burg, that was drawn up in the sixteenth century; their
electors defended and established the reformation which
Luther preached. But since the time of Frederick Au-
gustus, who embraced catholicism in 1697, in order to
make himself eligible for the crown of Poland, the reign-
ing family has continued faithful to that form of worship.

It appears from the work of M. Hassel Population.
that the population amounted to 1,386,000 individuals in the year 1822;
M. Engelhardt supposes the number of inhabitants equal
to 1,400,000. If the mean be taken between these two
numbers, the population may be estimated at 1,393,400
persons, and the number to every square mile at 250. This
wealthy country contains three thousand one hundred and
ninety-seven villages, fifty-seven burghs, and a hundred

ⁿ Statistische umriss, page 68.

^{*} Handbuch der Erdbeschreibung des Koenigreichs Sachsen.
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BOOK and forty-five towns, the most important of which, we shall
CXXI. endeavour to describe.

Dresden. The country near the capital, along the right bank of the Elbe is likely to attract the notice of a stranger, he may admire the wealth of the environs, the variety of picturesque sites, the breadth and cleanness of the streets in the suburbs, and the length of the magnificent bridge across the river. That bridge, built of sandstone, is formed by sixteen arches; it is four hundred and seventy-four yards in length, and twelve in breadth. Benches are placed at different distances, and near the twelfth pillar, a gilded crucifix is supported on a solid rock thirty feet in height. The fourth pillar was sprung by Marshal Davoust on the 19th of March, 1813, in order that he might be better able to secure the retreat of his troops; but the bridge has been repaired since 1815. The lofty fortifications in Dresden were changed into fine walks in 1810, and three years afterwards new ramparts were constructed by the French, to protect themselves against the allied armies. These ramparts have also been demolished. Dresden is divided into the Old and New Town and three suburbs, the largest of which are Neustadt and Friedrichstadt. Sixteen of its eighteen churches, belong to the protestants. *Frauen Kirche* (Womens' church), built after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, is, situated in the Old Town; the light pillars on the roof support a tower that rises to the height of three hundred and forty feet. Sophia's church or the church of the court, is remarkable for the sculptures that adorn its portal, for the pictures with which it is decorated, and also for a number of pillars that surround the altar, they are said to have been taken from the temple at Jerusalem; it is pretended that they were brought to Dresden from the holy city by Duke Albert in 1476.

**Other
buildings.**

The finest buildings in Dresden are the chancery, the treasury, the mint, the arsenal, the townhouse, the Japanese palace, the royal palace and that of the princess Maximilian and Antony. The king's palace is a large building of irregular architecture, adorned with many turrets,

the highest of which is not less than three hundred feet above the ground. The exterior of the palace corresponds but ill with the valuable collections contained in it.

When Frederick the Second of Prussia entered the electorate, after having declared to Frederick Augustus, king of Poland, and elector of Saxony, that the measure was necessary for his own safety, and the most rigid discipline was to be observed by his troops; the elector fled to his army at Pirna, but the queen his wife possessing a degree of firmness and courage beyond what could be expected from her sex, refused to accompany him, and waited the arrival of the Prussians. In the mean time Ferdinand of Brunswick entered and plundered Leipsic, and Frederick arrived at Dresden. Having demanded certain archives from the queen, she refused to give them up, his soldiers then advanced into the *royal palace*, broke open the doors, and carried away the archives, but after a strict search for a treaty of offensive alliance between Russia, Austria and Saxony against Prussia, that had served as a pretext for Frederick's invasion, the treaty was not found. The hall of the great opera, which is contiguous to the king's palace, although finely decorated, is more worthy of notice from its size, it may contain eight thousand spectators. The view from the palace of Brühl, is perhaps the finest near Dresden, and the gallery of paintings in the same palace, is supposed to be the most valuable of any in the town. There are not fewer than five hospitals, besides one for orphans, and another for foundlings. Many places of education might be enumerated, among others, two gymnasia, a school that is reserved for the daughters of catholics, several others, such as the one for cadets, another for the royal pages, and a third for engineers; in addition to these, may be mentioned a school of medicine and surgery, and five charitable institutions for the education of the poor. Different societies have been established, some of which are devoted to the encouragement of the arts and sciences. A number of antiquities and medals, and three libraries have been collected for the use of the inhabitants; but the most va-

Taken by
Frederick.

BOOK luable library is the one that belongs to the king, it contains two hundred and fifty thousand volumes, four thousand manuscripts, and twenty thousand geographical maps. **CXXI.** The population of Dresden is equal to 52,000 individuals, and the course of the Elbe is favourable to their commerce and industry.

Leipsig. Leipsig or Leipsick is, after the capital, the most important town in Saxony. It is advantageously situated in a fertile plain at the confluence of the Elster, the Parde and the Lappe; so much wealth has been diffused by its commerce, so much have enjoyments and luxuries increased, that the rich prefer it as a place of residence to Dresden. Much of the ground in the neighbourhood is laid out in public walks; the most frequented are the wood of Rosenthal, the garden of Hendel, Gehlis and its vicinity. These places were laid waste by hostile troops, but they have been embellished and improved since that period; no evils are irreparable, where commerce and industry exert their beneficent influence. It may be remarked, however, that the different spectacles, shows and other places of amusement in these public walks, form a singular contrast with some monuments of war. The tomb of the fabulist Gelert, is situated in the garden of Resch, the philosopher Gallich was buried in the gardens of Hendel, and the grave of Poniatowski, who died like a hero, after having witnessed the allies of the French turn their arms against each other, is still to be seen in the groves of Reichenbach.

**Theatres,
&c.**

The public places that are resorted to in winter, are the national theatre, the musical academy, the casinos, the winter gardens of Breiter, and different societies, which have been called *Resources*. If the streets in Leipsig were broader, it might bear a comparison with the well built towns in Germany. The principal edifices are the town-house and the mint, the much admired hospital founded by Georges, and another for the education of orphans. The church of St. Nicolas may be mentioned on account of its marble ornaments, and some paintings by Oeser; but that of St. Thomas is perhaps better known from the

number and excellence of its organs. The castle of Pleis-enburg, a building that resembles the citadel at Milan, is all that remains of Leipsig's ancient fortifications; it contains a church, in which the principal turret serves as an observatory, and also what one would not expect to find in an old fortress, a good chemical laboratory, and an academy of architecture and painting. Leipsig has possessed an university since the year 1409; its different schools are well attended, its scientific society has obtained merited reputation, its museum is valuable from its models and machines; in short, its botanical garden, collections and libraries, are worthy of a town, that unites much commercial wealth and many varied branches of industry with the greatest book trade in the world.

The small town of Chemnitz or Alt-Chemnitz, situated Chemnitz. on a river of the same name, is perhaps more agreeable and better built than any other in Saxony; its population is estimated by Hassel at 16,000 inhabitants. It may be remarked that it was the birth-place of Puffendorf; it is unnecessary to describe its six churches, its college and four hospitals, the triple wall that surrounds it, and the ancient castle by which it was formerly defended. Plauen con-Plauen. tains a population of six thousand souls, and possesses, like Chemnitz, a trade in linen, muslins and calicos.

Freiberg ought to be more minutely described, its impor-Freiberg. tant territory has been already mentioned in the account of the Saxon mines; it is watered by the Fulda, and situated at an elevation of twelve hundred feet above the level of the sea. It has the appearance of an ancient city, from the number of its old buildings, but several streets are broad and straight, and there are many well built houses. The tombs of some ancient Saxon electors are to be seen in the cathedral, the finest of its six churches. A valuable collection of ancient armour is arranged in the townhouse, a gymnasium and library have been established for the use of the inhabitants; but the celebrity of Freiberg depends on the school of the mines, an institution that might serve as a model for others of the same sort; many distinguish-

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ed men have been educated there, since the time the collections were increased, and the method of teaching improved by Werner. The baths of Halsbruck in the neighbourhood of Freiberg, are much frequented, their salutary effect in different diseases has been generally acknowledged. The number of villages in the vicinity, and the situation of Freiberg in a mountainous country, peopled by miners, whose manners are very different from those of the inhabitants in other parts of Saxony, render it interesting to strangers.

Koenig-
stein.

But if a painter or a naturalist wish to travel through a country that may amply reward them for their labour, they must go from Freiberg to Koenigstein and Schandau, two small towns in which the population is insignificant, but both of them are surrounded by the most romantic scenery. The first was made impregnable by the late king. It is built on a rock about eighteen feet above the course of the Elbe; a well not less than eleven hundred feet deep, supplies the inhabitants at all times with cold and limpid water. The second or Schandau stands on the banks of the Elbe, and is encompassed with mountains and rocks, which rise in the form of an amphitheatre. Its harbour is enlivened by an active trade, and many visitors repair every year to the mineral springs in the vicinity.

Zittau.

Zittau is built near the eastern extremity of Saxony in a fertile valley on the banks of the Mandau or Alterwasser. It contains about eight thousand inhabitants; its trade consists in cloth and also in white and printed linens. It possesses a gymnasium, a normal school, a museum of natural history, a collection of medals, five hospitals, one of which is reserved for orphans. If the church of St. John were wholly built, it might be the finest in the town, but a long time may elapse before it be finished. Those, who leave the town by the Bohemian gate, arrive after a short journey at the village of Herrnhut, which is peopled by four hundred individuals, all of whom belong to the sect of Moravian brothers; they have their pastor and their church.

Bautzen.

Bautzen or Budissin, the last town that we have to de-

scribe in the kingdom of Saxony, is situated on a rock that commands the banks of the Spree. An extensive commerce and numerous manufactories render it a place of some importance. It is peopled by 11,600 inhabitants; the fortifications, which are now almost in ruins, attest its antiquity, although its straight and well built streets give it the appearance of a modern town; the cause of these improvements has been attributed to fires, by which the old houses were at different periods destroyed. The theatre and a house of correction are perhaps the finest buildings; the places of instruction are an academy and gymnasium. The town is one of a small number, which affords an example of religious toleration, that we would wish to see everywhere imitated. The church of St. Peter is divided into two parts by an iron trellis, one part is reserved for the Catholics, and the other for the Lutherans. The hill of Protschen is situated on the left bank of the Spree, at a short distance from Bautzen. The ruins of an ancient altar still remain there; it was supposed to be the place where the gods of the Wendes used to deliver their oracles. The old castle and the fortifications which served to defend the town, are believed to have been built during the ninth century; no mention, however, is made of Bautzen in history before the year 1078. But it has become famous in the annals of war from the successful struggle which the French army made in 1813 against the allied powers.

The two principal divisions of Ducal Saxony are Weimar and Gotha. The first and the second, which was subdivided into several parts, formed some years ago five principalities of unequal extent. The surface of the first, or the great duchy of Saxe-Weimar is not less than one thousand and ninety-two square miles; the duchy of Saxe-Gotha was equal to nine hundred and six; that of Saxe-Meiningen to two hundred and ninety-four; Saxe-Hildburghausen to a hundred and seventy-four; Saxe-Coburg to three hundred and seventy-eight. But the limits and names of the three last duchies were chang-

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ed after the death of the Duke of Saxe-Gotha in 1825. The territories of Meiningen, Hildburghausen and Saalfeld make up at present the dutchy of Saxe-Meiningen; its superficial extent may be upwards of seven hundred and twenty square miles, and the population amounts to a hundred and twenty-eight thousand inhabitants. The dutchies of Altenburg, Ronneburg and Eisenberg, that formed part of Saxe-Gotha, are now denominated Saxe-Altenburg; its surface is equal to four hundred and fourteen square miles, and its population to a hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants. Lastly, the territory of Saxe-Coburg with the territories of Ohrdruff, Gotha and St. Wendel on the left bank of the Rhine, make up the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, which is about seven hundred and sixty-two square miles in extent, and contains one hundred and thirty-nine thousand inhabitants.^P

Saxe-
Weimar.

The great dutchy of Saxe-Weimar is peopled by two hundred and five thousand individuals, including about a hundred and eighty-seven thousand five hundred Lutherans, six thousand three hundred Calvinists, ten thousand Catholics and twelve hundred Jews. They inhabit thirty small towns, twelve burghs and five hundred and eighty-six villages. The territory has been divided into two provinces or principalities, those of Weimar and Eisnach. The first is situated between the Prussian province of Saxony, the principalities of Schwartzburg, Reuss and Rudolstadt; the second between the possessions of Prussia, the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, the electorate of Hesse, and Bavaria.

Soil.

The land in the principality of Weimar belongs to the secondary formation. White and ferruginous sandstone are observed, and the limestone is similar to that on the chain of Jura. Some hills extend from north-east to south-west, and join the range of Thuringerwald; the rest of the country consists of extensive plains and thick forests.

^P We are indebted for these details concerning the limits and population of the three dutchies to M. Balbi, who communicated to us part of the manuscript of his work entitled, *Balance Politique du Globe*.

The soil in most places is rich and fruitful. The land in the principality of Eisnach is of the same sort as that in Weimar; sandstone, slate, marble and coal are found in the country; but there are some extinguished volcanos on the banks of the Werra, that are connected with a group which extends on the left bank of the Rhine. Different metals, such as silver, copper and iron may be observed in the same part of the country.

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The principal towns in the great dutchy of Saxony are ^{Towns.} Weimar, Apolda, Jena and Eisnach. They may be shortly described, for none of them are very large. Weimar, situated on the Ilm, contains 9000 inhabitants. In the principal church are the tombs of the princes and princesses of the ducal family, and that of the painter Cranach; the nave of the same church is adorned by some of his paintings. The town possesses several public schools, a college, an academy of painting and some charitable institutions. The palace of the prince has been considered the finest edifice; the interior may be mentioned on account of its rich furniture and valuable collections, which consist of armour, medals and paintings. The park before the palace is laid out after the English manner, and it has been more admired than any other in Germany.

The romantic country seat of Belvedere in the neigh- ^{Neighbour-}bourhood of Weimar belongs likewise to the prince. A ^{hood.} school of agriculture has been established at Tieffurth; the fine gardens of the late dutchess dowager in the same part of the country are still kept with great care; monuments have been erected there to the memory of the princes Constantine of Weimar, and Leopold of Brunswick. The grave of the celebrated Wieland is to be seen at Osmannstedt. A mineral spring that has been of late much frequented, is situated at Berka, a village about six miles from Weimar.

Apolda is peopled by 3000 individuals, and its trade con- ^{Apolda.}sists chiefly in cloth. Jena, which contains 5000 inhabi- ^{Jena.}tants holds a distinguished rank among the collegiate towns in Germany. Several libraries, a museum of natural his-

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tory, a theatre of anatomy, and clinical lectures are open to those who attend the university. The different learned and scientific societies, as well as the literary gazette published at Jena, tend to diffuse a taste for study. The town is built on the Saale; the memorable battle which bears its name, was fought in the neighbourhood on the 14th of October 1806.

Eisnach.

Eisnach is agreeably situated on a height that commands the Nesse; it is surrounded by walls, and possesses a ducal castle, a mint, two public schools and several charitable institutions. It contains 8000 inhabitants, it was founded in the year 1070.

**Dependen-
cies.**

Different districts attached to the principality of Eisnach are situated in Bavaria, Saxe-Meiningen and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; but all of them are so small as to render any mention of them unnecessary. The same may be said of another district dependent on the circle of Jena, and situated in the Prussian province of Saxony. The only town in it is Alstedt, which may contain about 1900 inhabitants.

Industry.

An extensive commerce is carried on in the dutchy of Saxe-Weimar. More than a hundred thousand pieces of woollen stuffs are annually manufactured at Eisnach. The trade of Jena and Apolda consists in the same articles, and Kaltensundheim is peopled by weavers. There are upwards of forty potters at Burgel, and a still greater number of workmen, that find employment at the vinegar distilleries in the same place. Weimar is noted for its leather, Stutzerbach for its glass and paper, and Ilmenau for its porcelain and hardware.

**Revenue.
Army.**

The revenue of the great dutchy amounts to the sum of 1,800,000 florins or L.180,000, and the public debt is equal to 6,296,000 florins or L.629,600; a sinking fund has been established for its liquidation. The armed force consists of two foot regiments and a company of cavalry; but the inhabitants rose in mass in 1814, and an army of eighteen thousand men was collected.

The subjects of the great duke of Saxe-Weimar are indebted to him for the advantages of a representative government. According to the constitution of 1816, each district appoints a deputy. Ten are chosen from the class of burgesses, and as many from the rural districts. Every citizen of Weimar or Eisnach, who possesses an income of 500 rix-dollars or L.75, and in the other towns, every burgess, whose income amounts to 300 rix-dollars or L.45, may be elected a deputy. A proprietor, whose land is worth 2000 rix-dollars or L.300, may be deputed by the district. No one can be deprived of his elective privileges on account of his birth, rank or religion. The deputies are elected for six years, the elections are public; persons in authority are not permitted to solicit suffrages for candidates. The assembly of deputies names counsellors for life, who are entitled to sit amongst them, and to give their votes. An assembly must be summoned at the lapse of three years after its dissolution; but a commission composed of two deputies and a *marshal* or chief of a district, who is chosen by the deputies, watches constantly over the public interest. The assembly, together with the prince and his ministers, fixes the budgets, establishes or abolishes taxes and imposts. It has the right of communicating its opinions to the prince on whatever relates to the wants and necessities of the people, individual liberty and the protection of property. If a law be proposed by the assembly, and rejected by the prince, the same proposition may again be made at two other meetings. But if the prince proposes a law, the assembly cannot reject it without assigning the reasons of their refusal. Lastly, it appears from a judgment of the court of appeal at Jena, and from the representations made to the assembly by the people, that if a law be sanctioned by the different powers in the state, and not put into execution, the districts may claim redress from the Germanic confederation. Such are the elements to which this small state owes its prosperity; it might be well if its constitution were studied by the legislators of more powerful kingdoms.

BOOK The revenue of the dutchy of Saxe-Meiningen may
CXXI. amount to L.70,834; the number of troops is equal to
 Saxe-Mein- eleven hundred men. A great part of the soil is moun-
 ingen. tainous and well wooded, it abounds in metals, salt and
 coal. A branch connected with the chain of Rhœne-Ge-
 birge extends along the country. Its principal towns are
 Meiningen, Hildburghausen and Saalfeld. A lucrative
 trade is carried on in these towns and in several villages;
 it consists in iron, glass, paper and different manufactures.
 The capital, of which the population may be equal to
 4500 inhabitants, is surrounded by mountains and situated
 on the Werra. The useful institutions are a college and
 orphan hospital; the public buildings are a church, the
 ducal palace and the chamber of the states. Its trade con-
 sists chiefly in cotton and fustians. Hildburghausen, a
 small town of 3500 inhabitants, is also watered by the
 Werra. A monument has been erected to the memory of
 the young prince Lewis Ferdinand of Prussia, near Saal-
 feld, at the very place where he was killed on the 15th
 October 1806.

Dutchy of The dutchy of Saxe Altemburg, more populous in pro-
Saxe-Al- portion to its extent and more wealthy than the preceding,
temburg. possesses nearly an equal revenue. Its capital, which is
 well built and peopled by ten thousand inhabitants, con-
 tains four churches, a gymnasium, a public library and a
 museum of natural history. Ronneburg is about fifteen
 miles distant from Altemburg; it was formerly defended
 by an old castle; the number of inhabitants exceeds 4000.
 It may be added that the mineral baths near the town, not-
 withstanding their agreeable situation, and the money that
 has been laid out in embellishing them, are not much fre-
 quented. Eisenberg, a small town of nearly the same po-
 pulation as the last, and commanded by a strong castle,
 carries on a trade in glass and different manufactures.

The dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha is the last of the
 Saxon principalities that remains to be described. Al-
 though it be almost unnecessary to notice small territories,
 scattered in different countries, and belonging to secondary

states; it ought to be mentioned that the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha comprehends, besides its possessions on the declivities of the Rhœne-Gebirge, the greater part of the territory between the Nahe and the Glan on the left banks of the Rhine, which has been called the principality of Lichtenberg. A branch of the Thuringerwald extends from the country in the neighbourhood of Gotha to the north, and that part of ducal Saxony is supplied from it with coal and different metals. The country to the north of Coburg may be considered a continuation of the Rhœne mountains, which join the Thuringerwald. They are called Sonnenberg by the Germans. ^{BOOK CXXI.}

Granite overtopped with basalt is observed in that branch of the Rhœne-Gebirge chain. Calcareous rocks containing organic remains, and belonging to the second formation, are situated on the declivities. All the land in the principality of Lichtenberg abounds with coal and limestone. ^{Structure.}

The country of Sonnenberg, though by no means important from its extent, is remarkable for its industry. It affords a striking example of the prosperity which a people may attain by labour and economy. That district, covered with mountains and forests, derives annually from its products, apparently of little value, the sum of L.5000. The price given for them is not the price of the materials but of the labour bestowed on them. They are the toys of children, boxes, chests, marbles, glass buttons and different articles of cutlery. It may be said that commercial interest first taught these mountaineers the advantages that result from the division of labour. One makes the body of a doll, another the arms, a third unites them, and a fourth paints it. They follow a like method with whatever they make of wood or pasteboard. Thus, it happens that they can afford to sell their handiwork at a very low price; it may be stated for instance that seventy dozen of childrens' trumpets can be purchased for half a crown or three shillings. The toys made in the district are sent to different ^{Sonnenberg.}

* See Dictionnaire de la Geographie Physique. (Encyclopédie Methodique,) tome V. article Rhœne-Gebirge.

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parts of Germany, Frankfort, Leipsig, Dresden, Nuremberg, Munich and other trading towns, from which they are exported to every country in Europe, and even to some parts of America.

The inhabitants in the dutchy of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, like those of Saxe-Weimar, live under a representative government. The military establishment consists of 1400 men; its revenue was estimated at L.75,000 and the public debt is not more than L.170,000.

Towns.

The principal towns are Gotha, Coburg and Saalfeld. The first is as fine a city as any in ducal Saxony, and perhaps more remarkable than any other for its scientific institutions. The gymnasium is much frequented, and from its observatory important services have been rendered to astronomy. It possesses besides a museum of natural history, and a valuable collection of medals. Gotha is agreeably situated on the side of a hill above the Leine.* It is adorned by several fountains and some elegant buildings. It was founded in the year 964 by an archbishop of Mayence; it contains at present 11,000 inhabitants. The trade of Gotha consists principally in porcelain, woollen and cotton stuffs.

Coburg.

Coburg, too, is noted for its porcelain and trinkets in petrified wood; it possesses a considerable trade in tobacco, linen, and woollen goods. Built in the middle of a beautiful valley on the banks of the Itz, many strangers resort to it. The places of amusement are a theatre, concert rooms, and casinos, one of which is called the Erholung.[†] The public buildings are the ducal palace and the town-house. Although the arts and sciences are not so much encouraged as at Gotha, it has its observatory, museum of natural history, and a public library. The population, according to the latest calculations, amounts to eight thousand inhabitants.

Saint Wendel.

Little can be said of St. Wendel, in the principality of Lichtenberg; it is considered a town, but it contains hardly two thousand inhabitants.

* Erholung signifies recreation in German.

Having thus given an account of the different dutchies in Saxony, we shall endeavour to describe electoral Hesse, a country more important than any of these principalities. Possessing a population which Hassel estimates at five hundred and eighty-five thousand individuals, and a surface not less than three thousand three hundred and ninety-six square miles, it holds a distinguished rank in the German confederation. It is bounded on the north by Hanover and the Prussian province of Westphalia, on the west and the south by the principalities of Waldeck, Hesse-Darmstadt and Bavaria, on the east by the Prussian province of Saxony, the great dutchy of Weimar, and the kingdom of Bavaria. It possesses also the seigniory of Smalcalden, which is surrounded by the Saxon dutchies.

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Electoral
Hesse.

Hesse is principally formed by those deposits of lime-stone which the Germans call *muschelkalk*, and by the sandstone, known in the same country by the name of *quadersandstein*. Volcanic summits rise from the midst of these rocks, they are similar to those that have been already mentioned in the account of the provinces on the Rhine. Ramifications of the Vogel and Rhœne-Gebirge mountains extend through the whole of Hesse to its northern extremity, and form the numerous vallies by which the soil is indented. Thus, the land is better adapted for the growth of timber and pasturage than for agriculture.

The highest summits are situated in the country of Fulda, and it too is nearest the centre of the Rhœne mountains. The Milzeburg reaches to the height of three thousand two hundred and ninety feet, and the Dammersfeld to three thousand six hundred and forty. Two distinct ranges may be observed in the northern part of the electorate; the one on the south-east of the large plain of Cassel, is formed by horizontal strata of ancient sandstone; the other on the north-east is composed of calcareous rocks crowned with basaltic summits.

Heights of
the moun-
tains.

The Habichtswald is not the least remarkable of these heights; its ridge forms the eight-sided pavilion of Weisenstein; and the bituminous wood near its summit is

Volcanic
mountains.

BOOK worked and used as coal. At a greater distance is situated
CXXI. the Alberg, a mountain of a conical form, less elevated than the last; on its summit are still to be seen the ruins of an ancient castle. But the mountain of Meisner rises at the distance of eighteen miles from Cassel, and it is more remarkable than any of the rest from the rocks and substances that compose it. M. Daubuisson de Voisins has given a description of it, to which some details may be added. It is separated from all those that surround it, and equal in elevation to two thousand three hundred and thirty-four feet above the level of the sea. From its base to its summit, that terminates in a plain six miles in length, and three in breadth, are observed in the first place an extensive mass of calcareous rocks, mixed with shells and other substances; above it is a layer of *lignites* or bituminous wood, not less than a hundred feet in thickness, and covered with basalts that vary in height from three hundred and thirty to five hundred feet.

M. Daubuisson's description.

The observer, says M. Daubuisson,* after having examined the component parts of the mountain, and compared them with those of the neighbouring country, must come to the conclusion that the enormous mass of wood which rests on its summit, has been transported to it. It is impossible that all the trees could have grown on the place. The soil on which they were deposited has been at one period a shallow, and the water by which they were carried down, flowed from a higher region. The basalt that now covers them, issued from a crater situated at a more elevated level. The lofty country from whence the trees as well as the lava descended, exists no longer, for the mountain commands at present all the neighbouring district to the distance of forty-five miles, and indeed there are only in the whole of lower Germany one or two summits of a greater elevation. All the contiguous territory, which at one time must have been higher than the mountain, has therefore disappeared; it has been destroyed and

* *Traité de Géognosie*, tom. II. pp. 230, 231.

taken away, but not by a sudden or instantaneous cause. Time, assisted by the elements of the atmosphere, has effected the change, cut the mountain into its present shape, made it a detached mass, and separated it on every side." It may be added that the fossil wood on Meisner, like all the other lignites, must have been heaped by fresh water deposits. Thus the greater part of the mountain, after having been formed in the depths of the primitive ocean, might have been the bed of a lake that watered a volcano, of which the remains are the basalts on the summits. To how many reflections may not such phenomena give rise!

Fossil fish, in sufficient preservation to discover the genera to which they belong, are found in the copper and bituminous schistus on Riegelsdorff as well as in that of Mansfeld. Almost all these remains of a creation for ever annihilated, differ from the fish that are known at present; it has been remarked that animals of the same species are frequently found together, as if they had congregated while alive. Reiss, a German naturalist affirms that he discovered the hand of an ape in the schistus, but it has been probably some part of a marine mammiferous animal, since no remains of anthropomorphites have hitherto been observed in the different deposits that form the crust of the earth.

Copper and argil used in making porcelain, are obtained in the territory of Hesse. Alabaster of a very white colour is exported from the neighbourhood of Konnefeld; tripoli and jaspers are collected in the western districts watered by the Lahn; the numerous salt springs on the frontiers of Hesse-Darmstadt, and in the country of Smalcalden, produce annually a hundred thousand hundredweights of salt; the mines that are worked near the town of Smalcalden, yield thirteen thousand hundredweights of iron, and four thousand of natural steel. The country of Cassel has likewise its mineral wealth; three or four salt works have been erected at a saline spring, near the burgh of Carls-hafen, at the base of the Reinhards-Wald. Twenty two drying houses and a proportionable number of works are built

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Organic re-
mains.

Produc-
tions.

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at another and more abundant spring near Allendorf. The salt obtained from it every year is said to be worth L.17,000. Sixty workmen are employed at the iron mine of Hohenkirchen; nearly the same number of men earn a subsistence at another mine near Homberg, and at a third not far from Rommershausen. The mountain of Hirschberg contains, in the neighbourhood of Almerode, beds of schistus, from which about four hundred quintals of alum are extracted. The total produce of two mines, one of cobalt, and another of copper, near Riegelsdorf, is not less than twenty-five thousand quintals, and they furnish employment to nearly a thousand individuals. Other mines of copper, less valuable than the last, extend to the west of Cassel. Lastly, coal is obtained in different parts of Hesse; there are besides gold and silver mines, several thermal and sulphureous springs.

Climate.

The climate of Hesse is on the whole temperate, but the winters are sometimes severe. As in every other mountainous country, the vallies and the hills are subject to differences of temperature, that influence in a greater or less degree the nature of the agricultural products. Different kinds of grain, leguminous plants and fruits grow on the plains in the neighbourhood of Cassel and Hanau. The grape too ripens in some places. Lint and hemp are raised in several vallies, and wherever the land has not been laboured, the woods are abundant.

Divisions.

It appears from a calculation of Hassel, that in all the dependencies of the electorate, there are 1,337,420 acres of arable land, 329,688, laid out in gardens and orchards, 436,675 of meadow or pasturage, and 984,160 of woods or forests.

Products of
industry.

Manufacturing cloth, weaving linen and different woollen stuffs, working metals, and the art of making glass, porcelain and earthen ware, form the principal employments of the inhabitants in Hesse. It is chiefly at the two extremities of the electorate, on the territories of Cassel and Hanau, that the products of labour are most considerable. It might be wished, however, not-

withstanding the protection which government grants to industry, that it was still less restrained, and particularly that there were fewer incorporations; their influence and the spirit which guides them all, are more adapted to prevent than to facilitate improvements; not more than a few years have elapsed since it was unlawful to carry on several trades in the villages. Stein assures us, that even at present a man cannot become a grocer in some places, unless a bodily defect renders him unfit for a different occupation.

It is to be hoped that the council of arts, which has been lately established, and whose duty it is to examine the corporation enactments, to make reports concerning inventions and proposed improvements, to award medals and premiums to the workmen and labourers, who send the most approved specimens to the exhibitions that are held at stated times, may tend to convince government and the nation of their real interests. Council of arts.

The commerce of Hesse consists in the exportation of its products and manufactures, and in the conveyance of goods sent by Frankfort to the north of Germany. According to Stein, the thread and linens exported every year from Cassel to foreign fares, may be sold on an average for L.208,900. The same country exports besides about 120,000 casks of mineral water, and a great quantity of merchandise, for which it receives in exchange, sugar, coffee, cotton, French and German wines, grain, lint and hemp. Although it is vain to attach any importance to the balance of trade, since every state must be obliged to furnish a value equal to what it receives; it may be said that Hesse derives some advantage from its commercial relations with foreign powers, because the industrious classes being sober and economical, consume less than they produce. Commerce.

The electorate of Hesse was destroyed by Napoleon in 1806, who added the greater part of its territories to the kingdom of Westphalia, while the county of Hanover was united to the great dutchy of Frankfort. But Hesse became an independent state in 1813, a prince was then restored to his Government.

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possessions, whose family, according to genealogists, was founded in the year 875 by Ramir, surnamed the *Long Necked*, count of Hainault. The government is monarchical, the power of the prince is modified by that of the states, which are composed of the principal ecclesiastics of the different Christian communions, the mayor of Cassel, seven deputies elected from the nobility, eight from the burghesses, and nine landed proprietors.

Religion.

Catholicism is not the most common form of worship in the electorate; the number of Calvinists or reformists amounts to 336,800, there are not fewer than 140,000 Lutherans, while those of the Catholic persuasion do not exceed 102,800; the Jews may be equal to 5,300, and the Mennonites to 100. Many families are sprung from French emigrants, three or four thousand of whom left their country, and settled in Hesse after the fatal revocation of the edict of Nantes. The persecuted protestants being hospitably received by the Germans, were grateful to their benefactors; the French language is no longer spoken, their descendants are confounded with the other inhabitants.

Jews.

If the Jews in the electorate are not in the same degraded state as in Poland and several German towns, they are indebted for it to the Westphalian government, by which they were made to participate in the rights and privileges of citizens. A single restriction was imposed on them, they were compelled to keep their ledgers and commercial accounts, not in the Hebrew, but in the German language.

Censorship.

A censorship of the press was established throughout the electorate in the year 1816; no book printed in Hesse, or published in a foreign country, can be sold or distributed, until it be approved by the agents of government.

The property of the prince, nobles and clergy were sold, imposts were diminished, and onerous taxes abolished, when Hesse was added to the kingdom of Westphalia; After the ancient order of things was established, when statute labour and other hardships were exacted from the inhabitants, when those that had purchased land, were sum-

mainly dispossessed of their property, the discontent be- BOOK
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came so general that government thought it prudent to pre-
vent the expression of public opinion.

Nothing indeed could have been more impolitic or more National
property.
unjust than the decree, by which the ancient proprietors
were put in possession of lands that they had sold, and the
purchasers only entitled to the sums that they had expend-
ed in improving their property. Some noble or powerful
families, it is true, obtained through the assembly of the
confederation, an indemnity equivalent to the interest of
the capital which they had laid out; but the petty pro-
prietors could not bring their complaints before the Ger-
manic confederation. Other grievances were added to this
motive of discontent, which in truth concerned only the
least numerous class; the inhabitants had to pay many
taxes and imposts, in addition to those imposed by the West-
phalian government; indeed it may be affirmed without fear
of contradiction that the proprietor pays at present in the
shape of contributions, three times as much as what he paid
in 1806. The necessities of the crown were no excuse
either for the measures relative to the national domains, or
for the augmentation of the taxes; because at the time of
the restoration, the prince received L.75,000 from France,
L.160,000 from England, and L.6500 from the Jews to
confirm them in their privileges as citizens.^t

Hassel supposes the revenue of the electorate to be Revenue
and debt.
equal to four millions five hundred thousand florins, and
its public debt to one million nine hundred and forty-five
thousand. Thus it may be concluded that both in a
financial and commercial point of view, it is one of the
wealthiest secondary states in Europe.

The military establishment is proportionate to its re- Army.
sources. The levy, which was made in 1814 under the
name of *landsturm*, was not less than eighty-two thousand
infantry and two thousand cavalry. The army in 1816 con-
sisted of twenty-two thousand men, of whom six thousand
formed the *landwehr* or force for the defence of the country.

^t See Stein's Geography.

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It has been reduced to nine thousand, and out of that number five thousand six hundred are the contingent which the state furnishes to the confederation. But as if it were the object of government to keep up an army of warlike and effective men, the period of military service has been fixed for twelve years, and every soldier, who engages after the expiry of that time for other twelve years, receives at the end of his second engagement, a civil employment or a pension. The public tranquillity is maintained by a body of dragoons, trained after the manner of the French gendarmes.

Towns.

Sixty-two towns are situated in the electorate, the least important of which are Rinteln in the neighbourhood of Hanover; Hof-geismar, which is known from its mineral springs; Eschwege, watered by the Werra, and enriched by its trade in tobacco and the conveyance of goods, Allendorf on the base of Mount Meissner, near which a saline spring yields annually 90,000 hundredweights of salt, Rothenburg, the residence of the landgrave of Hesse-Rothenburg, who possessed under the sovereignty of the elector, eight towns and two hundred and nineteen villages, but who in consequence of a private arrangement between them, receives at present an annual income of L.12,500, lastly Gelnhausen, built on a lofty hill, from which the Kinsig, a small river descends, and waters lands covered with vineyards.

The capital.

But several towns of greater importance may be mentioned, Cassel or the most considerable is the capital of the electorate. Stein, Hassel and other authors who have written on the statistics of Germany, do not agree concerning the number of its inhabitants, but it is not less perhaps than 20,000. It is divided into three principal quarters, the Old, the New and the New Upper Town. The two first are old and consequently ill-built; the last or the most modern consists of broad and straight streets, adorned with fine houses. The principal street or that of Bellevue, commands a view of the castle. The finest squares are the Royal square, those of the Parade, Frederick and the

Gensdarmes. The most important public buildings are the Catholic church, the arsenal and the electoral palace, which was burnt to the ground in 1811, but which government began to rebuild in 1817. The town possesses a lyceum, a normal school or seminary for the instruction of school-masters, an observatory and several literary institutions. A valuable library and collection of philosophical and mathematical instruments are attached to the electoral museum. The garden of Bellevue, the esplanade and the park of Augarten are the most frequented walks in the town. The country seat of *Wilhelmshöhe* beyond the walls, is more frequently visited than any other part of the neighbouring country, its gardens, fountains and cascades render it perhaps the finest place of the kind in Germany. Cassel cannot be ranked among the number of trading towns, still two large fairs are held in it every year; its manufactures are linen, woollen stuffs, porcelain and earthen ware.

Marburg on the Lahn has been styled the capital of Marburg. Upper Hesse; it is according to Hassel a town of 6,588 inhabitants. The ancient gothic church is finer than any of the other buildings; the university was founded in 1527, its library may be voluminous, but many of the works are now out of date. The trade of the place depends on its manufactures, and the most important consist in serge and camlet.

Smalcalde or Smalcalden, watered by a small river of the same name, is an ancient town, defended by two castles, those of Hessenhof and Wilhelmsburg; they belong at present to the elector. A town that contains 5400 inhabitants, possesses salt springs, iron works, and carries on a considerable trade in cutlery, must be regarded as a place of some importance in a country like Hesse. But Smalcalden has other claims to distinction, which an historian may consider still more important; several treaties were signed there, conferences were held in it at different times from the year 1529 to the year 1540. The princes, that determined to support the reformation, met at Smalcalden, and concerted their plans against Charles the Fifth,

BOOK who became the protector of Rome, after having pillaged
CXXI. it. Christopher Cellarius was born in the same town, he
 is known to posterity from his editions of different ancient
 writers, and from his excellent treatise on geography.
 Niceron the Jesuit has published a catalogue of his works.^a

Fulda. Fulda, a town on the river of the same name, is larger
 than Smalcalden, its population amounts at least to 8800
 inhabitants. The cathedral, a fine building, contains the
 remains of St. Boniface, the apostle of the Germans, whose
 memory was held in great veneration both in the country
 and in the palace of the sovereign bishop that governed the
 dutchy of Fulda, at so late a period as the year 1803,
 when his states passed into the hands of a prince of Nas-
 sau, and became afterwards a Hessian province in conse-
 quence of different arrangements. The town is finely
 built; the gymnasium, the seminary of arts, the school of
 midwifery, and other institutions are in general well at-
 tended. Most of the buildings, that served for convents in
 the time of the bishop, are now used for a better purpose.
 The Capuchins and Franciscans reside together in the
 neighbourhood of the town, two convents for women, to
 whom the education of young persons is entrusted, have
 been allowed to remain.

Country. The country of Fulda, though not extensive, is very
 productive; abundant crops of wheat are raised; it yields
 different fruits and good wine, not quite so good perhaps
 as when the principal vineyards belonged to the monks,
 who kept the wines for ten years in large casks, and by do-
 ing so, increased their value ten-fold. It is said that some
 of these wines have been sold for nine florins the bottle.

Hanau. The people are active, sober and industrious. Ha-
 nau, next to Cassel, the largest town in Hesse, is the
 metropolis of the province. Hassel makes the popu-
 lation amount to 9634 individuals; but according to Stein,
 it is not less than 12,000. The latter writer does not ap-
 pear to have overrated the number of inhabitants. Hanau

^a Œuvres de Niceron, tome v.

is divided into the old and new town, the last part is regularly built. There are two museums, the one belongs to the Weteravian Society, and the other, which is rich in minerals, has been collected by M. Leonhard. The town is pleasantly situated in a fruitful country, at the confluence of the Kinsig and the Maine. The elector has a palace in the neighbourhood; another royal castle has been built at Wilhelmsbad, about three miles distant from Hanau. The name of Wilhelmsbad indicates its thermal springs; the gardens round the castle are large and well laid out, but they are not kept with sufficient care; they are resorted to by the inhabitants and all the strangers that visit the baths.

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We have given a detailed account of electoral Hesse; it would be difficult however to say much concerning Hesse-Homburg, a principality, that, according to official accounts and different calculations, contains only 20,000 inhabitants, and of which the superficial extent does not exceed a hundred and two English square miles. The revenue amounts only to L.19,084, and the military force consists of two hundred men. It has besides another disadvantage, for it is made up of two petty territories nearly sixty miles distant from each other. The one or Homburg is situated between the possessions of Hesse Darmstadt, electoral Hesse, the Prussian principality of Wetzlar, Nassau and Frankfort on the Maine; the other or Meissenheim on the left bank of the Rhine, lies between the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, the principalities of Birkenfeld and St. Wendel, and the Rhenish Bavarian provinces.

Hesse-
Homburg.
Population.

The land in the two portions of Hesse-Homburg, is Soil. fruitful in grain, and abounds in metal; several mines are worked in the territory of Homburg, and there is no scarcity of iron or coal in Meissenheim. The Lahn flows through Homburg, the capital of the principality, which, according to Stein, contains a population of 2700 souls; it carries on a trade in linen, silk, flannel and woollen stuffs. Meissenheim, on the banks of the Glan, may be considered a burgh with a population of 1730 inhabitants. The commerce

BOOK of the last place consists in the produce of its mines and
CXXI. glass works.

Hesse- The great duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, though not quite
Darmstadt. so large as electoral Hesse, is however more populous. The extent of its surface does not appear to be correctly ascertained, at least German geographers differ on the subject. Hassel supposes it to be equal to a hundred and seventy-seven German square miles; Leichtenstern does not consider it less than two hundred and four; Stein makes it about a hundred and sixty-nine; Fabri nearly two hundred and fifteen; and Crome a hundred and ninety-six. The last calculation is perhaps the most correct, and it may be assumed that the extent of the great duchy cannot be much less than two thousand three hundred and fifty-two English square miles. Its population, says M. Fabri, amounted in 1819 to six hundred and thirty thousand inhabitants,* and Hassel† made it equal to six hundred and seventy-three thousand individuals in the year 1822. It appears, however, that the number of inhabitants at present does not exceed six hundred and fifty thousand, so that on an average there are more than two hundred and seventy individuals for every square mile. Some notion of the resources of the country may be inferred from so dense a population.

Position. Hesse-Darmstadt consists of two portions which are separated by the territory of Frankfort on the Maine. The first is bounded by the principality of Nassau, and the dependencies of Wetzlar on the west, and by electoral Hesse on the north, east and south. The second is bounded by the principality of Nassau, the territory of Frankfort, and electoral Hesse on the north, by Bavaria on the east, by the great duchy of Baden on the south, and by the Rhenish Bavarian provinces on the west.

Soil. The lands in the territory of Hesse-Darmstadt towards the north are composed, like those in electoral Hesse, of

* Handbuch der neuesten Geographie. † Statistischer umriss, page 92.

sandstone, calcareous and volcanic rocks. The districts that extend to the south of Frankfort, are parts of the primary formation, a formation in which deposits of organic matter have never been observed. The basaltic chain of Vogelberg stretches across northern Hesse; the heights are covered with forests, and their sharp and peaked summits, like those of Feldberg, are nowhere higher than two thousand eight hundred feet. The Malclenberg on the banks of the Rhine, or in the southern part of the country, rises to the height of three thousand six hundred feet above the level of the sea. The country on the banks of the Rhine is more fruitful than any other part of Hesse. The sides of the hills are planted with vineyards. The plains and the vallies yield rich harvests, and many places are covered with fruit trees. The mountainous districts are less fertile, but their deficiency in that respect is supplied by their valuable mineral productions.

Although the Hessians in general are laborious and active, the people on the mountains are perhaps still more so than the other inhabitants. The commerce of the agricultural districts consists in corn, wines, dried fruits, oxen and sheep; that of the higher districts in cotton, woollen and linen manufactures, leather, metals and cutlery. The advantages that industry derives from a rich and fruitful soil, have been promoted by a wise and enlightened government, which was among the first that adopted the representative system. The Hessian nation expected and obtained their privileges from a descendant of Philip the Magnanimous.

There are more Mennonites in the great dutchy of Hesse-Darmstadt than in the other German principalities, Hassel computes their number to be nearly a thousand; the same author supposes the Jews to amount to fifteen thousand, and the Lutherans and Reformists to nearly five hundred thousand; the Catholics make up the rest of the population. The number of Lutheran churches is equal to six hundred and thirty-five, those of the Reformists to a

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ment.

hundred and twenty-six, and lastly, the Catholic churches to a hundred and sixty-six.

The great duke assembles the deputies of the states, whenever it is necessary to levy contributions. A new system of laws, framed after the model of the Austrian codes was put into force in 1819. The criminal jurisprudence has been committed to a supreme court of appeal. The public works are superintended by a council, over which the duke presides. The justices of peace in each province are subject to the jurisdiction of the provincial courts. Separate courts or colleges, as they are called, have been erected for the purpose of regulating the taxes and contributions, and auditing the public accounts.

Revenue.

According to Hassel, the revenues of the state were equal in 1821 to the sum of 4,997,092 florins, and the expenditure to 4,496,000; namely, 771,000 for the civil list, 830,000 for the army, 2,827,000 for the different charges connected with the home department, and 568,000 for the interest of the public debt, which amounts to 11,288,000 florins.

The military force of the great dutchy consists of about eight thousand men; its contingent to the Germanic confederation amounts to six thousand. It may have besides at its disposal in time of war a considerable number of irregular troops. The levy or *landwehre* collected in 1814, amounted to ninety-five thousand men, sixteen thousand of whom were armed with muskets. The landwehre was declared permanent, in conformity to a decree passed on the 24th of August in the same year. Stein informs us, that government granted rewards to those who supplied the men with arms and clothing.

Education.

The government has been commended for the encouragement which it affords to commerce and industry; but it has been accused, and it is to be feared too justly, of something like parsimony, in diffusing the blessings of education and knowledge. The university and schools in the great dutchy, it may be allowed, are sufficient for the inhabitants; but it was most impolitic in government to

regulate education by the rank of the different individuals. In order to diminish the number of students, says Stein, a decree was passed in the month of June 1813, by which the children of burgesses and peasants were prohibited from attending the university, unless they had distinguished themselves at some of the public schools, and even in that case the sovereign's permission must be obtained. What can be gained by excluding a numerous class from the benefits of instruction, and by depriving the country of their most valuable services? It is a misfortune, from the pecuniary sacrifices attending education, that some men must remain ignorant; but it is injustice to prevent them from educating their children.

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The great dutchy is divided into three provinces; the principal towns in Starkenburg or the first, are Darmstadt and Offenbach; Giessen is the metropolis of Upper Hesse or the second, and there are, besides, eight other towns of two or three thousand inhabitants; Mayence is the chief town in the province of the Rhine, or the third; the towns next to Mayence in importance are Worms and Bingen. We shall first give a short account of the towns in Upper Hesse.

Giessen, a town to which Fabri assigns 6000 inhabitants, although its present population appears to be upwards of 8000, is situated at the confluence of the Wieseck and the Lanh. Its university has been long known; the library, the observatory and botanical gardens, where lectures are delivered on every branch of rural economy, prove that the useful arts, as well as the sciences, are not neglected. The public buildings are the castle, the arsenal, and the church of Saint Pancras. Hertz, a celebrated jurist, perhaps better known by the Latin name of Hertius, was born in the town; he is the author of several valuable works and of different memoirs on the history and geography of ancient Germany. Giessen carries on a trade in woollen and cotton goods. Alsfeld is the next largest town in Upper Hesse; it possesses three

Towns in
Upper
Hesse.

BOOK CXXI. cloth manufactories, a castle, two churches, an orphan hospital, and upwards of three thousand inhabitants.

Towns in Starkenburg.

Darmstadt or the capital was the largest town in the country, before Mayence was added to the principality. It is watered by a small river of the same name, and contains 16,000 inhabitants. It is divided into the old and new town; a considerable portion of the first has fallen into decay; the second is modern and well built; in that quarter of the town are situated the ducal castle, a gallery of paintings, a hall filled with statues and ancient armour, a military school, a drawing academy, a school of arts, a gymnasium and a library containing ninety thousand volumes. The principal edifice is a very large building in which the troops are exercised; the others are an opera and cathedral; in the last are the tombs of several princes of the reigning family.

Offenbach. Offenbach, peopled by 7000 inhabitants, and rich from its trade in silk, wax-cloth, tobacco and lace, lies to the north of Darmstadt on the banks of the Rhine.

Towns in the province of the Rhine.

Bingen is built at the confluence of the Rhine and the Nahe, in an agreeable and fruitful district; though not containing more than 3000 inhabitants, it carries on a considerable trade in leather and woollen stuffs.

Borbetomagus.

Worms appears to be the town of *Borbetomagus*, which Ptolemy calls the principal city of the *Vangiones*, a people that shall be mentioned in the account of the Rhenish provinces belonging to Bavaria. The same town received the name of Vormatia under the second race of the French kings. It was ruined by the Vandals in the year 407, by the Huns in 451, by the Normans in 894; and lastly, by the French in 1689. That ancient city has long since recovered from all these calamities, indeed it has not at present the appearance of a modern town; the streets are narrow, and many of the houses are ill built. Some public buildings must be excepted, these are the cathedral, the town-house, and the mint. Its population amounts to 7000 inhabitants, it possesses a lucrative commerce, which

consists principally in the sale of the wines that are produced in the fertile lands on the left bank of the Rhine.

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1. Mayence or, according to its German name, Mainz, the largest city in the great duchy of Hesse, stands at a short distance below the confluence of the Rhine and the Maine. It contains 27,000 inhabitants, some fine edifices and several useful institutions. The town is by no means regularly built, almost all the houses are constructed of red sandstone, and almost all the streets are narrow and crooked. It has been said that there are only three regular streets in Mayence; and the *Grosse-Bleiche* is without doubt the finest.* The only tolerable squares are the market-place and the Green Square; the cathedral is remarkable for its construction, antiquity and the valuable ornaments contained in it. The exterior might be still more imposing, if the two principal turrets were rebuilt. A large arsenal and a palace that belonged formerly to the Teutonic knights, may still be seen in the town, which is now one of the four strong places in the Germanic confederation. But the most curious building or the one best deserving of being visited, is that in which the principal collections are arranged; namely, three of medals, a museum of natural history, a valuable assortment of philosophical instruments, and a library containing more than eighty thousand volumes. The museum of Roman antiquities collected within the walls and in the neighbourhood has never been considered inferior to any in Germany. It is well known that Mayence was a place of some importance when the Romans were masters of the country, and that it was for a long time inhabited by Drusus. Several authors believe that its Roman name was *Mogontiacum*. It disputes with Strasburg and Harlem the invention of printing; it cannot be denied that the remains of the house in which Guttenberg lived, are still to be seen in the town. If indeed Mayence can boast of having first discovered that art by which knowledge and light triumph for ever

* *Grosse-Bleiche* or great bleaching place.

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over barbarism and darkness, it appears to have profited little from it, so few men of genius and learning have been born within its walls. Mayence is not a manufacturing place, but its territory enables it to carry on a considerable trade in wine, grain, cattle, tobacco, and lastly in iron and coal.⁴ The best wine in the country is produced on the lands in the neighbourhood of Hockheim, at no great distance from the town; in some years, a measure consisting of six hundred pints taken from the wine-press, has been sold for L.84.

**Neighbour-
hood.**

The country near Mayence is as beautiful as any that can be imagined. The river bends majestically northwards, and the surface of its waters is not less than 1400 feet in breadth; on the south it forms the boundary of an immense plain, and the high mountains on the north seem to impede its rapid course.[†] The green islands on the Rhine, the villages that rise like so many amphitheatres on the heights, the blue tints of the old town of Mayence, contrasted by surrounding verdure, and the various views on every side, must strike even those who are least sensible to the charms of nature.

**Principality
of Lippe-
Detmold.**

Lippe-Detmold is the largest of the numerous principalities that remain to be described; its surface may be equal to three hundred and thirty-six English square miles, and according to Hassel its population amounted, in 1822, to seventy-one thousand two hundred individuals. It is bounded on the north by the territory of Rinteln, which belongs to electoral Hesse, on the east by a portion of the kingdom of Hanover, and the principality of Waldeck; on every other side it is encompassed by the Prussian province of Westphalia.

Soil.

As to the geology of the province, the soil belongs to the ancient limestone formation, of the same sort as the

⁴ The goods conveyed to it by water during the year 1819, amounted in weight to 1,342,314 hundredweights. The exports in the following year were still more considerable, and there were besides 120,000 hundredweight exported by land. See Allgem. Haud. Zeitung, 1825.

rocks on Jura, to which the Germans have given the name of *muschelkalk*. The other substances are marble, clay that is well adapted for ordinary earthen ware, and the sandstone that is called *quadersandstein* in Germany. The lands are fruitful, although the greater part of the country is mountainous; it produces corn, fruit, lint and hemp. There are large forests of oaks, and extensive tracts covered with trees.

The industry of the country is principally confined to cotton spinning, to the manufacture of linen and woollen stuffs, and also to those tobacco pipes that are made of carbonated magnesia, and known in commerce by the name of *ecume de mer*. The inhabitants, who are almost all Calvinists, have enjoyed a representative constitution since the year 1819, and before that period they succeeded in abolishing the impost on wines and several other articles; the duties on spirits, stamps and playing cards, are the most important, which have been retained. The people in some powerful nations might be desirous of similar reforms.

The principality of Lippe-Detmold possesses a *revenue* of L. 42,000; government pays great attention to economy, so much so that a considerable public debt in proportion to the size of the state has been much diminished by the excess of the revenue above the expenditure. The military force amounts to seven hundred men.

The princes of Lippe-Detmold were probably descended from Wittkind, who lived more than a thousand years ago. But some genealogists, considering perhaps that origin too recent, go back to the German nobles during the period that the country was governed by the Romans. The family was so important in the reign of Charlemagne, that the people on the banks of the Weser being compelled to defend themselves against their neighbours, chose one of these princes for their chief. The title of count was conferred on them by the emperor Charlemagne; but it is difficult to trace the filiation to a more remote period than the commencement of the twelfth century.

^b Moreri's dictionary.—Supplement.—Lippe.

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Towns.

The five largest towns in the principality are not places of much importance. Detmold on the Werra, or the residence of the prince, contains only two thousand four hundred inhabitants. The principal buildings and institutions are two Calvinistic churches and one of the Augsburg communion, a college with a library, a school of industry, a seminary for teachers, an infirmary, an orphan hospital, a house of correction, and a bible society. The old quarter, which Cluvier supposes the ancient Teutoburgium, is dirty and ill built, but the streets in the new town are clean and regular.

Lemgo.

Lemgo or Lemgow on the Vega is more populous than the capital. The number of its inhabitants is not less than three thousand four hundred. It possesses a gymnasium and a convent for women; its trade consists in linen and woollen stuffs, and also in tobacco-pipes, made of carbonated magnesia. Dr. Kämpfer, a celebrated traveller, was born in the town, he was the author of several works but the civil and natural history of Japan has been considered the most valuable of his writings. Uffeln or Saltz Uffeln on the small river Salza contains about one thousand four hundred inhabitants. A considerable quantity of salt is extracted from the springs in its vicinity; Horn, the population of which is not much greater, lies near the forest of Teutoburg. A range of high rocks may be observed at no great distance from the walls; they are placed vertically above each other, and several antiquaries suppose them druidical monuments; the inhabitants call them the *exstersteine*.

Lippstadt.

Lippstadt, a town of three thousand inhabitants, may be said to form a part of the same principality. It is situated on the Lippe, and possesses a petty territory that is enclosed by the Prussian province of Westphalia. Formerly, a free and imperial town, it is now subject to two masters, the great duke and the king of Prussia. While some authors consider it the ancient Luppia, a town mentioned by Ptolemy, others maintain positively that it was not founded before the twelfth

century.^c It is well fortified, and possesses a gymnasium. BOOK
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The principality of Lippe-Schaumburg extends to the north of the one that was last mentioned. It is separated from it by the Hessian territory of Rinteln, which joins it on the east. It is bounded by Hanover on the north, and by the province of Westphalia on the west and south. The extent of the possessions belonging to the prince of Lippe-Schaumburg may be equal to a hundred and seventy-two English square miles, and the number of inhabitants to twenty-five thousand. The revenue has been estimated at five thousand eight hundred and thirty-four pounds, and the armed force amounts to two hundred and forty men. Principality
of Lippe
Schaumburg.

The land in the territory is of the same nature as that soil in the dutchy of Lippe-Detmold. There are several mineral springs, and extensive beds of coal. The fields are fertile in corn, lint and fruit; the forests yield more timber than what is necessary for the use of the inhabitants.

The government, like that in the last principality, is representative. Servitude was abolished in the year 1810; but statute labour and other burdens are still exacted from the country people. The prince granted to the deputies of the districts, the privilege of examining the public expenses, of regulating the amount of contributions, and the purposes for which they are to be applied, of deliberating on the laws, and proposing any measure for the good of the country. Two towns and three villages are contained in this small principality. Bückeburg or Bückenburg, the capital is situated on the river Aa. It is adorned by a castle in which the prince resides, it has its gymnasium, and contains 2000 inhabitants. The same town was the birth-place of Büsching, the celebrated geographer. Stadtlagen, situated in an agreeable valley on the Diemen, is Govern-
ment.

^c Dictionnaire géographique de Bruzen de la Martinière.

BOOK peopled by 1500 inhabitants. Salt springs have been discovered in the neighbourhood.
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Principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt.

The principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, the superficial extent of which cannot be less than three hundred and eighteen square miles, is bounded by the Prussian province of Saxony on the north, by the great duchy of Weimar on the east, and by the Saxon duchies of Coburg-Gotha and Meiningen on the west and south. It furnishes a contingent of nearly five hundred men to the Germanic confederation, possesses according to Stein a revenue of £. 22,917, and its population, says Hassel, amounts to 55,000 individuals.

Soil.

Calcareous rocks are observed in the northern, and primitive in the southern part of the principality; the heights of the Thuringerwald are mostly formed by the latter sort. The hills, that reach to the height of thirteen or fourteen hundred feet, are covered with forests. Plains and fruitful vallies, such as the vale of Helm, are situated near the base of these hills. Mines of silver, copper and iron have been discovered in many parts of the country. The inhabitants are employed in working these metals, and in making different kinds of tissue.

Government.

A representative government was established in the year 1816. The legislative assembly is composed of thirty-six deputies; six of whom are chosen from the proprietors of baronial estates, other six from landed proprietors not possessing baronies, six are nominated by the towns, and eighteen are elected by the citizens. They are all appointed for six years.

Towns.

Rudolstadt, Frankenhausen and Stadt-Hilm are the principal towns in the country. Rudolstadt contains 4600 inhabitants. It is the residence of the prince, and several valuable collections are contained in the royal castle. The town is watered by the Saale; it possesses a museum of natural history, a library of 50,000 volumes, a gymnasium and a school for the education of poor children. It carries on a trade in earthen ware and woollen stuffs. Frankenhausen on the Wipper, the place at which the le-

gislative assembly meets, is peopled by 3,600 individuals. BOOK
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 Saint Hilm or Hilm bears the name of the river that waters it. Its 2000 inhabitants are mostly employed in manufacturing different sorts of woollen stuffs. Two towns, Heringen and Kalbra in the government of Erfurt, containing each about 1700 inhabitants, belong jointly to the Prince Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt, the Count of Stollberg and the king of Prussia.

The principality Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen is equal in extent to two hundred and ninety-four English square miles; the number of troops amounts to four hundred men, the revenue to L.28,125, and Hassel estimates the population at 46,500 inhabitants. It may be thus seen that although it possesses a higher revenue than the former dutchy, its population is not so great. It is surrounded by the Prussian province of Saxony; the soil is productive; some mountains are situated in the northern extremity, they are composed of sandstone and ancient calcareous rocks.

Sondershausen or the capital is built at the confluence of the Wipper and Bober. It has its gymnasium, theatre and collection of natural history; it contains upwards of 3400 inhabitants. The castle of the prince, the baths of Gunther, and a sulphureous stream are situated near the town. Several linen manufactories have been built at Greussen, a town of 2000 inhabitants. The most of the fields in the neighbourhood are planted with lint. Arnstadt is the most important town in the dutchy; the Gera divides it into two parts. The electoral colleges meet there, the principal institutions and buildings are a lyceum, a collection of natural history, a castle, an orphan hospital and three churches. Its manufactures consist of coarse linen and brass wire, and its trade is considerable in proportion to its size. The most valuable copper mines in the country are situated in the neighbourhood of the town.

The family of Reuss consists of several princes; the largest principality belongs to the elder branch; the younger is subdivided into several families, whose states are very unequal both in point of population and superficial extent. Genealogists have traced the

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origin of the family to the year 950, and they suppose it to be descended from Eckbert, count of Osterode in Hartz. It has been affirmed that the name of Reuss or Ruzzo was originally a surname given to one of these princes, who accompanied the emperor Frederick the Second to the holy war about the year 1238. The same prince was taken prisoner by the Mussulmans, and sold as a slave to a *Russian* merchant, who conveyed him to Russia. After having past twelve years in a state of slavery, the Tartars made an incursion into the part of Russia where he resided, and brought him to Poland and Silesia, from whence he made his escape and fled to the court of the emperor. He retained a surname that reminded him of his misfortunes, and transmitted it to his two sons, from whom the two branches of the family are descended.^d

Reuss-
Greitz.

The territory of Reuss-Greitz, contiguous to the kingdom of Saxony, belongs to the eldest branch of the same family. Its surface may be equal to a hundred and twenty seven English square miles, its population amounts to 23,000 inhabitants, its revenue to 140,000 florins, and its contingent for the Germanic confederation to 200 men. Its territory, in which hills and vallies are interspersed, is fruitful in corn. The inhabitants are very industrious, they are employed in manufacturing woollen stuffs, working metals, and preparing steel. Greitz, the capital, situated in an agreeable and fruitful valley near the Elster, contains 6000 individuals. Zeulenrode, a trading town of 3600 inhabitants has an arsenal and an hospital. These are the only two towns in the principality.

Reuss-
Schleiz.

The changes that have been made since 1814, in the limits of the possessions belonging to the younger branches of the Reuss family, have not been mentioned in recent geographical works.^e The two younger branches of that

^d Zopfen, Reussische Geravische Stadt und Land-Chronica, 1678.

^e Nothing is said concerning the new division of the possessions of the younger line of Reuss, in Pinkerton's Abridgment of Modern Geography, edited by M. M. C. A. Walckenaer and J. B. Eyries, and published in 1827. M. Ad. Balbi was the first who took notice of it. See Tableau de la Balance politique du globe.

house are the families of Reuss-Schleiz and Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf. It is perhaps unnecessary to mention the separate branch of Reuss-Kœstritz, that possesses under the sovereignty of Reuss-Schleiz, the territory attached to Mark-hohenleuben, a small town of 2000 inhabitants, and the burg of Kœstritz on the Elster, that carries on a trade in ale and beer. The principality of Reuss-Schleiz, together with half the territory of Gera, is not much less than a hundred and sixty-two English square miles, and the number of inhabitants amounts to 28,000. The capital or Schleiz is built on the Wiesenthal, it contains 4600 individuals, and has its cloth, linen and muslin manufactories. Two small seigniories in Silesia, and some villages in the province of Brandenburg, and kingdom of Saxony, belong to the prince of Reuss-Schleiz, their total population may be equal to 7500 souls,

A territory of a hundred and ninety-two English square miles, including the half of Gera, makes up the principality of Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf. Although larger than the former, its population, according to the nearest approximations, does not exceed 27,000 inhabitants. The territory yields a sufficient quantity of metal to supply several important iron works; it is also well supplied with alum and vitriol, the sale of which forms not the least valuable portion of its commerce. Lobenstein, or the residence of the prince, is peopled by 2800 inhabitants; the trade of the place consists in leather, cotton and woollen stuffs. Ebersdorf, though only a burgh, has derived considerable wealth from its trade in cotton manufactures, soap and tobacco.

Gera, which together with its territory belongs in common to the two princes of the younger line of Reuss, may be called a place of some importance, when contrasted with the two capitals that have been last mentioned. The inhabitants are rich and industrious, and although the town was almost wholly destroyed by fire in the year 1780, it has been much improved since that period; its commerce too has increased so rapidly, that it is now called in Ger-

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many *Little Leipsig*. Its population in 1822, amounted, according to Hassel, to 7373 individuals. It contains a house of correction, a gymnasium and several schools, one of which is reserved for the children of the poor. But its wealth depends on its cotton and woollen goods, its porcelain, earthen ware and leather. The town and manufactories are mostly supplied with water from the Elster, on which it is built. The territory of Gera is contiguous to Prussia, and the duchies of Saxe-Altenburg and Weimar. The other territories, that form the different principalities of Reuss, are bounded by the kingdom of Saxony on the east, by the two last mentioned duchies on the north, by the Prussian principality of Saalfeld, and part of Swartzburg on the west, and lastly, by Bavaria on the south.

Revenue.

The revenues of Reuss-Schleiz and Reuss-Lobenstein-Ebersdorf, are together equal to 340,000 florins, such at least appears to be the opinion of M. Hassel; the contingent of troops that they furnish to the confederation, was fixed at five hundred men.

Duchies of

The house of Anhalt is one of those that claim Witt-kind for their founder. It boasts in common with many other families of being the most ancient in Europe. Lim-neus, ^f a learned German lawyer, does not hesitate to carry it back to Ascanus or Ascenazus, the son of Gomer, and grandson of Japhet, the son of Noah. It seems unnecessary to stop at the flood, it might have been easy to trace it from Noah to the first man mentioned in Genesis. Erudition is liable to many errors, if it be not guided by judgment; it has prompted more than one author to remove the impenetrable veil that conceals the origin of nations and families. Some genealogists in their attempts to trace the origin of the ancient counts of Ascania, from whom the dukes of Anhalt are descended, have imagined that certain tribes in Asia Minor, quitted the marshes of Ascania in Bithynia, and settled in the ancient forests of

Germany. Hence the origin of Ascenazus, a chief of the Ascanian tribes, whose descent has been deduced from a grandson of Noah. The confidence due to these etymological researches, can now be rightly ascertained; such writers as Salverte and Balbi have not disdained to prove their futility.* As to the origin of the dukes of Anhalt, it has been affirmed that they are descended from Esikon, a count of Ballenstedt, who flourished in the eleventh century. The filiation of the family may be traced to Henry, first prince of Anhalt, or in other words, to the commencement of the thirteenth century.^h The family has been since divided into three branches,* those of Anhalt-Dessau, Anhalt-Bernburg and Anhalt-Koethen, three different duchies, which may be shortly described.

The first or Anhalt-Dessau consists of several detached territories on the banks of the Elbe and the Mulda. Eight towns, two burghs, a hundred and fifteen villages and hamlets, are scattered over a surface of two hundred and seventy square miles. It contained in 1822, a population, which according to Hassel, amounted to 56,290 inhabitants.

The land is of the secondary formation, composed chiefly of ancient calcareous rocks, sandstone and a sort of argil well adapted for porcelain and earthen ware. The agricultural produce is modified by the nature of the soil, which is very different in different parts of the country. Many low and humid places are covered with marshes and lakes; the land in others is light and sandy. The crops consist of grain, lint, potatoes and hops. The cattle, particularly the sheep, are often exposed to epidemic diseases. The rot was so prevalent in 1815, that a regulation of government made it imperative on most of the proprietors to innoculate their sheep, a measure which checked the ravages of the contagious virus.

There are several breweries, tobacco-works and not fewer

* s Introduction a l'atlas ethnographique de Balbi.

^h Dictionnaire de Moreni. Article Ascarie.

BOOK than a hundred and twenty cloth manufactories in the
CXXI. dutchy. Oil and paper mills, earthen works and distilleries have been erected in several parts of the country. The exports are oil, carrot seeds, corn, fruits, wool, cattle and fish. Stein supposes that the exports are equivalent in value to 500,000 rix-dollars, and the imports to 1,000,000. According to the same author, the military force consists of 800 men, and Hassel does not consider its revenue less than 710,000 florins.

TOWNS. Dessau on the Mulda, is a well built town, containing a population of nearly 20,000 individuals. The streets are broad and straight, and the number of squares is not less than seven. There are four churches, a synagogue, three hospitals, one for orphans, and another for the poor, a house of industry, public baths, several schools and some manufactories. The ducal palace is the finest public building. Warlitz, a small town of two thousand inhabitants is adorned with a large castle and extensive gardens belonging to the duke. Zerbst on the banks of the Elbe contains 7300 inhabitants; it possesses a gymnasium and perhaps the most ancient Protestant school in Germany, it was endowed more than three hundred years ago.

**Dutchy of
Anhalt-
Bernburg.**

The dutchy of Anhalt-Bernburg is formed by several detached districts, their surface may amount to two hundred and sixty-four square miles. The population has been estimated by Hassel at 38,400 inhabitants, who are distributed in seven towns and fifty-four villages. The land on the west is mountainous and covered with forests; fruitful fields and extensive plains make up the greater portion of the eastern districts. The climate is temperate, particularly in the eastern part, the opposite extremity, which extends to the sides of the Hartz mountains, is subject to more severe cold. Many mines are worked in the country, and some of them are very profitable. The agricultural products are nearly the same as those in the last dutchy. The people are engaged in different branches of industry; several manufactures, iron, steel, wire and sulphate of copper, or vitriol are exported.

Bernburg or the capital is the most important town in the principality; placed on the side of a hill, and watered by the Saale, it is divided into three separate quarters, two of which are encompassed with walls; the third commands the other two, and the ducal castle or the residence of the prince is situated in that part of the town. Bernburg is well built, it contains different manufactories, and carries on a trade in earthen-ware and tobacco. The population, according to Hassel's estimate, cannot be less than 5340 individuals. Several extensive vineyards are planted in the neighbouring country. Ballenstedt is adorned with an ancient ducal castle, the only remarkable edifice in that gloomy and ill-built city. Harzgerode, another small town peopled by 2200 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in working the silver and iron mines in the vicinity, is situated at the height of 1400 feet above the level of the sea; one of the mines near Mœdchensprung yields annually about twelve hundred marks of silver. At no great distance from it is an obelisk of 58 feet in height, raised to the memory of the late duke by his successor. A body of four hundred men forms the military force of the dutchy of Anhalt-Bernburg; the revenue has been valued at 450,000 florins.

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Towns.

The territory of Anhalt-Kœthen is equal to two hundred and twenty-eight English square miles in superficial extent; there are four towns, one burgh, and ninety-three villages in the dutchy. The population amounted in 1822 to 33,500 inhabitants. The greater part of the land is low and fruitful, but the people are not so industrious as in the other dutchies; linen and woollen stuffs are the principal manufactories. The revenue, including that derived from the ducal domains, may be equal to 320,000 florins. The armed force consists of four hundred foot soldiers.

Kœthen or Cœthen, the chief town of the dutchy, is situated on the banks of the Zittau, and contains a population of 5500 souls. The prince resides in the capital, in which there are several seminaries; a normal school and a gallery of paintings. The people carry on a trade in

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woollen stuffs, gold and silver thread; embroidered work and lace.

Dutchy of
Brunswick.

The greater portion of the dutchy of Brunswick is formed by a territory bounded by Prussia on the east and the south, and by Hanover on the north and the west. The possessions attached to it are the districts of Blankenburg on the Hartz mountains, contiguous to Anhalt, and the kingdom of Hanover; secondly, the territory of Ganderzein, on the south-west of Brunswick, surrounded by Hanover; thirdly, Thedinghausen on the banks of the Weser, near the centre of the same kingdom; lastly, Kalwærde, a district encompassed by the Prussian province of Saxony. All these possessions form together a superficial extent of one thousand one hundred and eighty-two English square miles, and the population, according to Hassel, amounts to two hundred and thirty-four thousand four hundred inhabitants.

Soil.

The principal part of the dutchy, which includes the territories of Brunswick, Helmstœdt, and Wolfenbüttel, consists of lands that are different in their geological structure. Large calcareous deposits extend to the north of the capital, they belong to what geologists have termed the third formation. Lands of the second formation, in which the *muschelkalk* and *quadersandstein* of the Germans are not uncommon, serve as a support for these rocks on the south. The country is intersected with chains of hills. The granite branches of the Hartz extend across the territory of Blankenburg, and their sides are covered with forests. The vallies in the district of Ganderzein yield rich harvests; the fields in Thedinghausen are low and fruitful; Kalwærde is not broken by hills and the soil abounds with sand.

Mines.

The mineral wealth of the principality consists in different metals, such as iron, lead, copper, mercury and even gold and silver. Besides these substances, marble, gypsum, rock salt, lime, and potter's clay are obtained in different parts of the country. The soil in general is fruitful, and affords in many places rich pasturage. The agri-

culture of the country has been much improved; the crops consist of different kinds of grain, turnips, hops, madder, tobacco and endive. The last plant serves for two purposes, it is mixed with coffee, and used in preparing silk. The trade of the dutchy is very considerable; the manufactures are cloth, linen and silk, oil, and paper, wrought iron, glass, crystal, and porcelain. The revenue has sometimes exceeded two hundred and fifty thousand pounds. The army is composed of two thousand men.

The house of Brunswick is descended from Azo, marquis of Este in Tuscany, who lived in the eleventh century.¹ The same house has given dukes to Saxony and Bavaria, and a younger branch of the family has been raised to the throne of England.

Origin of
the ducal
family.

Brunswick or *Braunschweig*, the capital of the dutchy, Brunswick. is situated in a large plain, and watered by the Ocker, which divides it in several places. Some writers affirm that it was founded by Brunon, son of Adolphus, duke of Saxony, after whom it has been called. The streets are broad and straight, and the most of it is well built. The town and the different suburbs occupy a great superficial extent, and the population exceeds 32,000 individuals. There are twelve churches and the same number of squares, that of Burg is adorned by a bronze lion, which was founded in the twelfth century by order of Henry the Third, surnamed the Lion. The palace, the arsenal, the cathedral, that contains the tombs of the ducal family, and the Gothic townhouse are the principal buildings; but the church of St. Andrew ought to be mentioned; its tower reaches to the height of three hundred and eighteen feet. Among the institutions are a military school and other seminaries; it possesses several valuable collections, one of antiquities, another of natural history, and a third of engravings; in the last are preserved the coat and the sword of the duke of Brunswick, who was killed at the battle of Ligny in 1815. It is believed that the spinning wheel was

¹ Moreri's Dictionary.—Article, Brunswick.

BOOK CXXI. invented at Brunswick in the year 1534. Coffee mixed with endive, was first introduced in the same place, and it came into general use about sixty years ago. The town carries on a trade in cloth and linen.

Spinning wheel invented. **Wolfenbüttel.** Wolfenbüttel, a fortified place on the Ocker, contains an arsenal, a gymnasium and a valuable library, in the court of which a monument has been erected to the memory of Lessing. Its trade consists in tobacco and also in linen and woollen stuffs. The population amounts to 7000 inhabitants.

Other Towns. Scheppenstædt, though well built, is not a place of any importance. Helmstædt contains about 5300 inhabitants, and many of them are employed in different manufactories, the baths of Amelia are situated in an agreeable valley near the town. The botanist may find many rare plants at no great distance from them; the geologist may discover the bones of antediluvian elephants in the alluvial lands near the village of Thiede, and the antiquary may observe on the Cornelius-Berg, many of those stones placed vertically, which are commonly supposed to have been raised by the Druids.

Blankenburg. Blankenburg, a small town with a college, two churches, and large iron storehouses, is situated in the mountainous region, where the last branches of the Hartz chain terminate. It is commanded by a height on which one of the largest castles in Germany has been built. The same castle belonged to the princes of Blankenburg, and it was for some years the residence of the king to whom France was indebted for its constitutional charter.

Principality of Waldeck. The territories belonging to the princes of Waldeck, are the counties of Waldeck and Pyrmont, forming together a superficial extent of three hundred and sixty-eight English square miles. They are peopled by fifty-four thousand inhabitants, and governed by the descendants of Wittikind, count of Swalenberg and Waldeck, who lived in the time of Charlemagne.

Soil. The ancient county of Waldeck, which forms the greater part of the principality, is one of the highest coun-

tries in Germany. It lies between Hesse and the Prussian province of Westphalia. The Rothaar and Egge mountains, which with their ramifications extend from the south-west to the north-east of the country, belong to the granite formation. The highest summits are those of Poen and Dummel. Several extinguished volcanoes are situated in the western part of the county, but none of them are so large as the Lammsberg. It may be inferred, from what has been already said, that the country is stony and unfruitful. The air, though keen, is salubrious. Several mines, as well as marble and slate quarries are worked in the mountains. Particles of gold are found in the channels of the rivers that water the vallies. Thermal and medicinal springs have been discovered in several places.

The agricultural products are not valuable, they consist of potatoes and different kinds of grain; wheat, however, is sufficiently abundant to form an article of exportation. The industrious classes are employed in spinning wool, manufacturing woollen stuffs, working the mines, and making paper. Produce.

The chain of the Egge mountains terminates in the county of Pyrmont, between the principality of Lippe-Detmold, and the country belonging to the duke of Brunswick. That petty territory is mountainous and covered with forests; its extent may be equal to thirty English square miles, and it contains about 5000 inhabitants. The principal export consists in worsted stockings, which are knit by the people.

The revenue of the principality of Waldeck amounts to 400,000 florins or L.40,000, and the military contingent which it furnishes to the Germanic confederation does not exceed 500 men. Revenue. A representative government was established in 1816; the deputies are appointed by the possessors of baronial estates, the other landed proprietors, the peasantry and the burgesses of thirteen towns. An assembly is held every year, and it is the duty of the members to examine the budget, impose taxes, propose laws, which are submitted to the prince, and to suggest any measures for the improvement of the country.

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Towns.

Corbach, which contains only 2000 inhabitants, has been considered the capital, it is well fortified and surrounded with walls; it possesses a gymnasium and other useful institutions. A Lutheran convent has been established at Schacken, and the abbess is generally selected from the princesses of the house of Waldec. Holsen, though well built, and the ordinary residence of the prince, is not peopled by more than 1500 inhabitants. A colony of quakers have settled in the village of Friedensthal, they carry on a trade in steel and different articles of cutlery. Pyrmont or Neustadt Pyrmont, a place of 2400 inhabitants, has been frequented since the fifteenth century on account of its mineral water. The various places of amusement, the strangers that resort to it in the gay season, and their number exceeds sometimes 2000, give it the appearance of an important town. The public walks are formed by several rows of lime trees. The prince possesses a country-house in the vicinity. Pyrmont exports annually 300,000 bottles of mineral water, and the duties levied on them amount to 12,000 rix-dollars.

Dutchy of
Nassau.

The dutchy of Nassau is bounded on the west and the north by the Prussian provinces on the Rhine, on the east and the south by the territories of Wetzlar and the principalities of Hesse. Hassel, Crome and Leichtenstein differ concerning the extent of the dutchy; it may be best to take the mean term of their calculations, and to assume that its surface is equal to one thousand six hundred and fifty English square miles. The population, it has been ascertained, amounts to 320,147 individuals.^k The wealth

^k The following details have been copied from the *Ephemerides geographiques* of Weimar, (tom. III. page 316.)

Families	77,177
Men,	161,521
Women,	67,235
Male Children,	85,855
Female Children,	83,096
Workmen,	3,611
Men Servants,	6,041
Women Servants,	12,511

of the country may be estimated by the number of its inhabitants, which amounts on an average to a hundred and ninety-four persons for every English square mile, a proportion that places it on a level with the most flourishing states in Europe. The revenue, relatively to the resources and extent of Nassau, is not so great as in some of the principalities that have been described; but it is equally true that lighter taxes and contributions are imposed on the people. The military establishment consists of 3000 men. The government is representative; the legislative and executive departments are formed by a chamber of peers nominated during life by the prince, and a chamber of deputies that are elected by the different districts.

The lands in the dutchy are composed of granite, lime-stone and volcanic rocks. The greater portion of the territory is mountainous, there are few plains, and none of them are large. The heights connected with the Westerwald, reach to the western limits of the country; their sides and summits are covered with trees. The chain and branches of Taunus extend to the south, and the Salzburger-Kopf or the highest hill in the dutchy is not less than two thousand feet above the level of the sea. Small but fruitful vallies are situated between the heights.

Silver, copper, iron and lead mines, marble quarries, coal and mineral waters form the natural wealth of the dutchy. The crops consist of corn, fruits, excellent wine, gall-nuts, hemp and lint. There are many cloth and linen manufactories, several paper mills, iron and copper works.

The house of Nassau is very ancient, the founder, it has been supposed, was Otho, count of Laurenburg, the general of the imperial army sent into Hungary by Henry the Fowler, in the year 926. The same Otho was styled prince of Nassau by Moreri,¹ but the burgh was not founded until after his death. It was not earlier than the year 1182, that the descendants of Otho took the title of counts of

Dukes of
Nassau.

¹ Moreri's Dictionary.—Article, Nassau.

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Nassau, from the name of a castle built in the preceding century near the site of the town. The same family, so illustrious from the great men that are sprung from it, was formerly divided into several branches, two only remain at present. The first or that of Orange is descended from Otho; the second or the branch of Weilburg claims Walram for their founder. The family of Orange, which has now ascended the throne of the Netherlands, retains its sovereignty over the dutchy of Nassau; and although the latter country is governed by a member of the Weilburg branch, he acknowledges that his rights are derived from the king of the Netherlands. The territory of Nassau was erected into a dutchy at the time that the confederation of the Rhine was established. It contains thirty towns, twenty-seven burghs, and eight hundred and seven villages.

Towns.

Braubach and Holzappel may be mentioned among the number of the towns; silver mines are worked in their vicinity, and their annual produce amounts to more than eighty thousand florins or eight thousand pounds. Ditz has risen into notice from its agricultural school. Dillenburg, so called from the Dillen that flows through it, possesses several copper founderies. Weilburg, situated on a hill, the base of which is watered by the Lahn, is a small town with a gymnasium; silver, copper and iron mines are wrought in the neighbourhood. The population in each of these towns varies from two thousand to two thousand six hundred inhabitants.

Capital.

Weisbaden or the capital contains more than 6000 individuals; encompassed with hills and romantic scenery, and defended by two castles; it is enriched by the profits derived from fourteen thermal springs, and the wealth of the numerous strangers that resort to them. If it be not admitted that its baths were known to the Romans, it might be difficult to account for the ancient tombs and the many relics of antiquity that have been found near the town. The most useful institution may be said to be an hospital for

the aged and infirm poor. As to the other mineral springs in the dutchy, the one at Selters is known throughout Europe; it has exported in some years more than 800,000 bottles of water, a trade that forms the principal wealth of the village, which is situated on the Embach.

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BOOK CXXII.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Germany.—Sixth Section.—Kingdom of Wirtemberg.—Great dutchy of Baden.—Principalities of Hohenzollern-Heckingen, Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen and Liethenstein.

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THE countries, we are about to examine, are more extensive than the petty states which were last described, but they were not less subdivided, before Baden was erected into a great dutchy, and Wirtemberg and Bavaria into kingdoms. The circle of Franconia comprehended the margraviates of Anspach and Bayreuth, as well as the free territory attached to the town of Nuremberg. The dutchy of Wirtemberg, the margraviates of Baden and the imperial towns of Ulm and Augsburg, made up the circle of Suabia; lastly, the circle of Bavaria was formed by the electorate of Bavaria, the bishoprics of Salzburg, Passau and Freysingen, and the possessions of Ratisbon, once a free town.

Recent
divisions.

The changes in the territorial division in that part of Germany, as well as in other countries, were occasioned by the preponderance which France possessed in Europe; under the reign of Napoleon. In consequence of the treaty concluded at Presburg in 1805, the government of these ancient circles and free territories was changed; the small principalities of Liechtenstein and Hohenzollern, retained their privileges, but Baden was raised into a great dutchy, Bavaria and Wirtemberg were made kingdoms within the

Germanic confederation. Some alterations in the limits of these states have been necessarily occasioned by the last treaties, and they have acquired from their new organization, a greater influence than they possessed under the protection of France. Bavaria, which is still a powerful kingdom, holds after Prussia, the first rank in the confederation. It shall be described in the next chapter.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg is situated between Bavaria and the great duchy of Saxony. Roesch considers its greatest length to be equal to three hundred and forty-eight geographical miles; it is not less than five thousand eight hundred and twelve English square miles in superficial extent. The greater portion of it is covered with hills, or indented with plains, the largest of which are watered by the Neckar. A branch of the Schwarz-Wald or Black Forest, forms for the distance of seventy miles, the western limit of the kingdom.

That chain composed of granite rocks, is of a higher elevation than the Rauhe-Alb, another range, formed by limestone of the second formation; it has been incorrectly called the Suabian Alps by French geographers. These two chains are branches of a higher range that commences at the banks of the Rhine, opposite Bale, and forms by a bifurcation the natural boundary of Wirtemberg on the south-west. The elevation of some of these mountains may be mentioned; the Katzenkopf or Head of the Cat, is more than 3000 feet above the level of the sea; the Stornberg is about 2776, the Rossberg, 2689, the Hohenzollern, 2621, the Kniebis, 2565, the Teck, 2327, the Stuifenberg, 2315, and the Neuffen, 2263.

The climate is in general, mild and temperate, but in the heights and forests, the atmosphère is cold, and the winters are of longer duration. The rivers that rise from the mountains are the Neckar and the Enz, the Fils and the Rems, the Kocher and the Jaxt, a feeder of the Nec-

^a See *Württembergische Jahrbücher für vaterländische Geschichte*, by Merzamingen, 1823.

^b Stein's *Geography*.

BOOK kar, the Danube together with several small rivers, as the
CXXII. Riess, the Roth and the Iller.

Fossil re- The fossil bones of elephants and other antediluvian
mains. animals have been discovered on the valley of the Neckar, in the neighbourhood of Canstadt.

Lakes. The Federsee is the largest lake in the interior of Wirtemberg, we shall not mention the lake of Constance, which forms merely the southern limit of the kingdom.

Ancient in- Ammianus Marcellinus and other ancient writers make
habitants. mention of the Alemanni, that inhabited the country between the Upper Danube, the Upper Rhine and the Maine. That country forms, at present, the great duchy of Baden, and the kingdom of Wirtemberg. The *Alemanni*, *Alamunni* or *Alambani*, as they are sometimes called by the ancients, were the ancestors of the people that now inhabit the states governed by the king of Wirtemberg. Agathias and Jornandes,^d who lived under the reign of the emperor Justinian, have left us much valuable information concerning these barbarous tribes. The first explains the meaning of their name, and tells us that Alemanni signifies a junction or union of different nations in Germany; in short, it seems to be derived from *all* and *mann*, two words nearly alike both in German and English. The Allemanni were probably descended from the Suevi. Their government was monarchical, or at all events, they chose a chief when they began a war; their religion was the same as that of the other Germans, but they were distinguished from them by their fierce and warlike customs. Their hatred against the Romans, excited them to many acts of cruelty, which were committed against their prisoners. Caracalla defeated them, but could not make them submit to his authority, and it was only by means of bribery that some were gained into his service. They made themselves masters of the forts, which the Romans built on the Rhine, and laid waste part of Gaul during the third century. Their country was afterwards desolated,

^c Rer. gest. XXVIII. 5.

^d De reb. get. 17.

and they themselves conquered by Maximin. Their history indeed exhibits a succession of victories and defeats, until nearly the end of the fourth century, when they submitted to Maxentius. BOOK
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Wirtemberg was formed into a county in the circle of Princes of
Wirtem-
berg. Suabia about the middle of the eleventh century.* The emperor Maximilian changed it into a duchy in the year 1495. Many of the inhabitants embraced the reformation under Ulric the Eighth, who took an active part in the league of Smalkalden. The number of protestants at present in the kingdom is supposed to be more than a million.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg abounds in mines, marble, Productions. and different kinds of limestone that are used in building; it is also well supplied with coal, sulphur, salt and mineral springs. The land yields good harvests, and more than a half of it is in cultivation. The vineyards take up nearly a fiftieth part, the meadows about a seventh, and the forests occupy the rest of the country. The landed proprietors rear a great number of horses, oxen, pigs and sheep; merinos have been introduced, and are found to succeed.

The woods and the fields were so much overrun with Game, that government found it necessary in 1817 to encourage the destruction of hares, rabbits and other kinds of game by which the crops were injured. The keepers of the forests are obliged to recompense the farmers for any injury that these animals may occasion. Two persons are appointed in every village, and their sole occupation is to destroy game.

There are many manufactories in Wirtemberg, but none of them are very important. Manufactures. The articles manufactured in the plains or low districts are cotton, linen and woollen stuffs; many watches are made in the high country; and paper mills, leather and iron works may be seen in the vallies.

But another and very important trade consists in spirits; Spirits.

* Moreri's Dictionary—Article Wirtemberg.

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there are not fewer than thirty distilleries in the district of Heilbronn, two hundred and twenty-six in Bahligen, and sixty-three in Biberach. The spirits made in these distilleries, are not obtained from wine, potatoes or grain, but extracted from the fruit of the small cherry trees that increase so readily on the mountains in the Black Forest. That spirituous liquor is generally known by the name of *Kirchen-Wasser*. The quantity consumed in the country, and exported every year, is sold for 130,000 florins or L. 13,000. It furnishes the means of subsistence to a hundred and twenty families among the lower orders of society. It may be doubtful whether this German liqueur can be commended, but it is not the less certain that the inhabitants of the Schwarz-Wald ought to raise a monument in memory of Thomas Leodgar, who invented it, and to whom the people are indebted for their wealth.

Commerce.

The commerce of the kingdom consists chiefly in the exportation of its wood, wines, grain, dried fruits, leather, linen and kirschen-wasser, and also of the watches and wooden clocks, that are made in the high districts. The countries, to which most of these exports are sent, are Switzerland, France, Bavaria and Austria. It receives in exchange, cloth, oil, fine wool, raw and dressed silk, tobacco and colonial produce.

**Inland
trade.**

As to the inland trade, it is believed to be protected by the different custom-houses, by excluding foreign competition, and by the monopoly which government has imposed on certain articles. Thus, the cotton cloth, known by the name of the Chinese town in which it is made, cannot enter the kingdom; unworked iron cannot be exported from it; salt and tobacco are sold exclusively by government. For the purpose of encouraging commerce, an uniform system of weights and measures, founded on the decimal division, was established. The management of the roads is committed to government, and some attempts have lately been made to improve them. Commercial communications are likewise facilitated by navigable rivers.

M. Memminger^f supposes the value of all the mercantile ^{BOOK} goods in the kingdom, equal to thirty-three millions of ^{CXXII.} florins, or three millions three hundred thousand pounds sterling; the natural products, according to the same author, amount to sixteen millions, and the manufactured to seventeen millions of florins.

It appears from the statistics of M. Hassel that the ^{Revenue.} revenue in 1821 was not less than 8,300,000 florins, from which if the sum derived from the domains and forests be deducted, 5,681,000 remain, the amount of all the taxes and contributions, that are imposed on the people; so that on an average, every individual in the kingdom, pays annually four florins or eight shillings in the shape of taxes. The expenditure has been estimated at 7,900,000 florins,^b including what is put into the sinking fund; and the interest on the national debt, which at the time was not supposed to be greater than 20,000,000 florins. But it must have considerably increased within the short period of two years, for, if a report made to the chambers in 1823 be correct, it was then equal to 25,679,616 florins. The revenue, although sometimes higher than in 1821, has more frequently been lower; in 1824, one of the most prosperous years, it exceeded 10,028,000 florins^c.

The harvests have more than once so completely failed; ^{Emigration.}

^f Wurtembergische Jahr-bucher, &c. 1824.

^a The following details are subjoined.

	Florins.
Domains	2,268,000
Direct taxes	2,000,000
Indirect taxes	2,530,000
Forests	351,000
Saltpetre and salt mines	94,000
Post office	69,000
Different receipts	404,000
Receipts in arrear	561,000

Total 8,300,000

Some of the items may be mentioned, for the civil list, 666,000 florins, for the ordinary appendages of the royal family, 309,000, for the war department, 1,855,000.

See Allgem. Deutche Justis Kammer, &c. &c. February 1825.

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that government has been obliged to remit the taxes in several districts; the same cause has induced many individuals to emigrate to America and the southern provinces of Russia. Stein^k assures us that upwards of twelve thousand persons emigrated during the first four months of the year 1817. But it must be admitted that a considerable number were influenced by religious notions; the aurora borealis, which appeared at different times in Wirtemberg, during the month of February in the same year, was considered a sign or an injunction of the Lord, by which the people were commanded to leave the country.

* Army.

It was determined in 1819 that the army should consist of nineteen thousand men in time of war, and six thousand in time of peace, exclusively of three hundred and seventy gendarmes. The contingent, which the state furnishes to the confederation, amounts to fourteen thousand men. It ought to be mentioned that a law was passed nineteen years ago, rendering it imperative on every bachelor from the age of twenty to forty, to enter the militia, which is made up of sixty cohorts, and each cohort of a thousand men. Those who have attained the age of forty, form a corps of reserve. The time fixed for the military service is ten years for the cavalry, and eight for the infantry. Officers were entitled to inflict corporal punishment on the soldiers, a privilege which has often been abused in the German armies. Government considered that a method of punishment so humiliating to private soldiers, was not tolerated in despotic countries, it was therefore abolished about twelve years ago; at present, no man in the army can be punished without the sentence of a court-martial. It was fixed by a law passed in 1812, that the widows of sub-lieutenants and soldiers, who had been slain in the field of battle, should be entitled to a pension equivalent to the pay of their husbands; their children too may be brought up at the royal hospitals at Stutgard or Ludwigsburg, if their relatives are unable to maintain them.

^k Stein's Geography.

Some notion of the number of inhabitants in Wirtemberg may be formed from the military force. Hassel estimated the population in 1822, at one million four hundred and forty-six thousand individuals, consisting principally of Germans, Wends, and Jews.¹ But the number of inhabitants has increased since that period, and it appears from the excess of the births above the deaths, that the population amounted in 1826 to 1,517,700 souls, from which it follows that the average number of individuals for every English square mile, is upwards of two hundred and sixty-one, a number that places Wirtemberg on a level with the most populous states in Europe.

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Population.

A law, by which many before the year 1817, were prevented from having fire-arms in their possession, has been wisely modified. That privilege is granted at present not only to landed proprietors, their stewards, the officers of government and the huntsmen appointed by the districts, but also to the proprietors of isolated houses, and manufactories. Each burgh may dispose of a certain number of guns, that are entrusted to the mayor, who gives them to any that wish to destroy noxious animals, or to guard their property against the depredations of thieves.

The press is not wholly free in the kingdom of Wirtemberg; but the restrictions imposed on it, indicate on the part of government, rather the desire of diffusing instruction and the light of knowledge, than the dread of any imaginary abuses, that may arise from a privilege which has now become necessary to the inhabitants of a civilized state.

Liberty of
the press.

In the above number are included 703,400 males and 740,600 females. The tables of M. Hassel enable us to arrive at an approximation concerning the number of the different classes.

Nobles,	1,700
Burgesses and householders,	1,193,300
Artisans,	108,000
Labourers and vine-dressers,	101,000
Day labourers and servants,	42,000
Total,	1,446,000

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According to a law passed on the 30th of January 1817, any work may be published that contains nothing contrary to religion and the public tranquillity. The journals are equally free in time of peace, but during war, they must be examined by censors. It is the duty of the crown lawyers to prosecute the authors of blasphemous and immoral works, writings, of which the tendency is to calumniate private characters, attack the conduct of the king, his ministers, the members of the chambers, and the representatives of foreign powers

Education.

Government deserves to be commended for its zeal in diffusing knowledge among the different classes of the community. There is hardly a town of any size in the kingdom without a gymnasium; and not a small one without one or more schools. These institutions are attended by children from six to fourteen years of age, and schools of art are open for the instruction of mechanics. A gratuitous school has been established in every village, and schoolmasters repair twice or thrice a-week to the remote hamlets, where the pupils assemble in each other's houses. It may be affirmed indeed that almost all the children among the lower ranks of society are taught to read, write and cast accounts. The different seminaries are under the inspection of the clergymen and curates, but the scholars must be examined every year by professors, who are sent from Stuttgart and Tübingen. The schools for the lower orders are annually increasing; thus there were not more than two hundred and sixty in 1823, and the number of pupils did not exceed ten thousand and sixty-four; but in 1825, the number of schools amounted to three hundred and forty-two, and the scholars to fourteen thousand and eighty-seven. The masters of these institutions are mostly selected from the seminaries at Esslingen and Ehrlingen, which may be considered normal schools. Clergymen superintend some places of education, but in general, those who devote themselves to the noble career of instructing youth, are educated and trained by men of distinguished merit. The sons of the lower orders, if they are

desirous of following the ecclesiastical profession, and show any talent, for it is a matter of indifference whether they be catholic or protestant, are educated at the expense of government.

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Two orders of knighthood have been instituted in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the honour, which the prince may thus confer, was intended as a reward for civil services and military merit. The officers, who receive this distinction, wear a gold medal, and the soldiers a silver one. *Virtutis amicitiaque foedus* is the motto on the cross of the Golden Eagle, which was founded in 1704. The members are foreign princes or officers of high rank, and according to the statutes of the order, an intimate union must subsist between them; they must assist each other in the field of battle if it be in their power, and perform good offices to one another in the ordinary occurrences of life. The number of knights is limited to fifty, but as none can be admitted that are not sprung from an ancient and noble family, the order of Merit was instituted in 1806 for those who cannot receive the decoration of the Golden Eagle. The members wear a medal with the inscription *Bene merentibus*, and they are divided into great crosses, knights commanders and knights. These honorary distinctions, the influence of wealth, and the importance of civil employments have contributed to form several distinct classes in the kingdom.

Orders of
Knight-
hood.

The dukes of Wirtemberg shared, since the commencement of the sixteenth century, the rights of sovereignty with the assembly of the states, which was formed by the fourteen highest ecclesiastics and eighty-nine deputies from the towns and districts. When Napoleon raised the dutchy into a kingdom, the assembly was dissolved. But after the deliverance of Germany, to use a German phrase, or more correctly, after the establishment of a new Germanic confederation, the districts and the nobles claimed their privileges and a national representation, by which the power of the crown might be confined within proper bounds. According to the constitution, the king arrives at majority

Constitu-
tion.

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at eighteen years of age ; his person is inviolable ; he may be either a catholic or a protestant ; to him only belongs the ratification of the laws, the right of administering justice, of making peace or war, and the command of the army.

**Religious
liberty.**

Liberty of conscience, and equality among the different Christian communions have been solemnly sanctioned by the constitution ; and a very important privilege has thus been conferred on the different sects in the kingdom. No legislative enactment can be put into force, until it has been approved by the general assembly of the states ; the same body fixes the amount of taxes, and regulates the contributions ; lastly, individual liberty has been guaranteed, and the confiscation of property abolished.

Assembly.

The assembly consists of thirteen members, who are chosen for life among the nobles, but one of that order cannot be elected, if his annual income does not amount to fifty thousand florins or five thousand pounds ; the other members are six Protestant ecclesiastics, a Catholic bishop, two Catholic clergymen, and four lawyers. The deputies elected by the people must have an income of eight thousand florins. Two hundred inhabitants of a town elect a deputy. They are appointed for six years, and that period can only be abridged by an extraordinary dissolution. A fund has been established out of which the expenses of the assembly, and even the travelling expenses of the members are defrayed. The deputies from the districts are elected by the landed proprietors, but no one can exercise his elective privileges, until he has completed his twenty-fifth year. Three members are chosen by the upper chamber, and as many by the lower, and out of that number, the king nominates the speakers of the two houses.

**Conservative
Council.**

Government has shown itself favourable to the representative system, and in order to preserve the principles on which it depends, a conservative council has been created. It consists chiefly of lawyers and magistrates ; one half of the members are appointed by the king, and the other by the lower chamber. The council passes judgment on the

public functionaries and deputies, that are accused of acting unconstitutionally. It judges concerning differences BOOK
CXXII that may arise between the ministers and the districts concerning the interpretation of the constitutional laws. The districts may accuse the king's ministers, but they cannot make a public functionary resign his situation for a lower office, much less deprive him of it, unless he be guilty of a crime, or unfitted for the discharge of his public duties by want of capacity.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg is divided into four circles, Divisions
of the king-
dom. which bear the names of the rivers that water them, or the principal mountains that form the western boundary of the state. Thus, the circles of the Neckar and the Jaxt extend to the north; the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest to the west, and the Danube to the south. Twelve provincial and sixty-four subordinate courts of justice have been instituted in these four great divisions of the kingdom. There are a hundred and thirty towns in Wirtemberg, a hundred and twenty-eight burghs, one thousand one hundred and fifteen villages, and two thousand four hundred and ten hamlets.

Stuttgart, the capital of the kingdom, rises in the middle Towns. of a fruitful valley, surrounded with hills and vineyards, on the banks of the Nesenbach. The town has been lately enlarged, and it contained in the year 1823, one thousand nine hundred and eighty houses, twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and eighty inhabitants, exclusively of the garrison. The streets are straight and broad, two of them are remarkable for their regularity, and the number of fine buildings. Stuttgart is the seat of the supreme courts in the kingdom, and the king possesses two palaces, one of which, or the more modern, has been much admired for its architecture and the magnificence of its interior; a collection of natural history is contained in the other. The buildings that ought to be mentioned, are the principal church, the exchequer and the opera. The useful

^a See Umris zur erd und Staatenkunde, &c. by Hoffmann.

BOOK institutions are a library containing 20,000 volumes, a collection of twelve thousand bibles and a great number of manuscripts, a museum of arts, an academy of paintings, and a botanic garden. The commerce of the capital consists principally in cloth and linen.

CXXII. The small town of Eslingen may vie with Stuttgart in the beauty of its situation; encompassed by vineyards or forests, and watered by the Neckar, it was formerly among the number of free cities, it contains at present a court of justice, and its population amounts to 5600 inhabitants.

Ludwigs-
burg.

If we follow the winding course of the Neckar, we remark on its left bank, and at the distance of eight miles to the north of Stuttgart, the town of Ludwigsburg, a royal residence, peopled by six thousand individuals, and containing a fine castle, an orphan hospital, a house of correction, and several cloth manufactories. At the distance of ten leagues in the same direction, and on the opposite bank of the river, may be observed a larger town, that of Heilbronn; formerly a free city and a commandery of the Teutonic Order, it was enriched by the produce of its vineyards and distilleries, by its lead works and the navigation of the Neckar. Hall, which lies ten leagues to the east of the last place, has been called *Swabian-Hall* (*Schwabisch-Hall*), to distinguish it from others of the same name. Situated on the banks of the Kocher, surrounded with rocks, peopled by 6000 inhabitants, it owes its origin to the abundant saline springs in the vicinity.

Ellwangen.

Ellwangen on the Jaxt, the metropolis of a circle, and the seat of a theological university, cannot be compared in other respects with Gmünd, a town on the Rems, with a population of six thousand individuals, and well known for its different manufactures, particularly for the skill which its artisans have attained in working the precious metals. Gesslingen carries on a trade in different articles, made of ivory, bone and wood, the quantity exported may be equal in value to 900,000 florins. Four thousand five hundred inhabitants make up the population of Geppingen, a town watered by the Fils. The mineral waters of

Ueberkingen, situated in a romantic country at no great distance from the last town, are visited every year by many strangers.

The neighbouring village of Hohenstaufen stands on a height, that commands an extensive view. The old castle, now in ruins, still towers above the village, it was for a long time the residence of the emperor Barbarossa. The last descendant of the family of Hohenstaufen, was young Conrad, who, for having ascended the throne of Sicily, a country over which his father reigned, but which the Pope had made over to Charles of Anjou, perished on the scaffold at Naples in 1269.ⁿ

Beutlingen, formerly a free town, may be mentioned as the metropolis of the circle of Schwarzwald, and because it contains nine thousand inhabitants. It possesses a lyceum; its vineyards cover the sides of the Alp and the Georgenberg, and it carries on a trade in leather, lace and cutlery.

Tubingen, at the confluence of the Neckar and the Steinach, has been entitled the second capital of the kingdom. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals; it has a public library, containing sixty thousand volumes, and an university, attended by eight hundred students. The other institutions are a school of theology, a seminary for reformed clergymen, an observatory, and a veterinary school. The town cannot be commended for its appearance; the streets are crooked and narrow, the houses are gloomy and ill built.

Ulm, peopled by eleven thousand inhabitants, has a better claim to the rank of second capital. It was formerly a free and imperial town, and its population was at one time more considerable, for it contained in 1808 fourteen thousand individuals. Its situation on the frontiers of Bavaria, at the confluence of the Blau and the Danube, the fortifications that defend it, its manufactures and transit trade, by which its declining commerce is still supported, put it

ⁿ See Hohenstaufen in Lescbuch, by J. H. Ammermuller.

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on a level with the principal towns in Wirtemberg. Its fortifications, it must be admitted, were not sufficient to prevent the French from making themselves masters of it, but it is equally certain that it might be rendered a much stronger place than it is at present. As it did not offer any resistance to the French armies, its buildings were not destroyed; the most remarkable are the townhouse, the public library, and the church of Munster, a building that cannot be too highly commended on account of its proportions and rich Gothic architecture. The trade of the town may have fallen off, but it possesses another claim to distinction. The pastry known by the name of Ulm bread, its asparagus, and the snails fattened in the vicinity, are duly appreciated by gourmands; could it be believed, that more than four millions of these animals are annually exported?

Biberach.

Biberach on the banks of the Riss, a town peopled by five thousand inhabitants carries on a trade in paper and linen.

Antiquities.

The kingdom of Wirtemberg has been often visited by antiquaries. Several ancient monuments are situated in the southern part of the country. The ruins of an aqueduct about three leagues in length, may be observed in the neighbourhood of Rothenburg on the Neckar. The *Devil's Wall*, that rises on the banks of the Danube, at no great distance from Elwangen, forms the only part that now remains of a vast line of fortifications constructed by the Romans. The remains of Roman earthen works, from which a great many vases have been collected, may still be seen between Weiblingen and Endersbach, not many miles from Stuttgart. An altar and different basso relievos have been found in the same part of the country. The names of several places are connected with ancient recollections, *Beinstein* or *Beystein* means near the stone, and a monument was erected there by the Romans. Kalkofen, where

* See Kurzgefasste Beschreibung der Reichstadt Ulm. See also Handbuch der Neusten Geographie by Fabri.

Roman potteries were discovered a few years ago, has always borne the same name, which signifies a limekiln. BOOK
CKXII.

We abstain from making any reflections on the morality of the people in Wirtemberg; it may be remarked, however, that the number of criminal trials in the different courts, during the year 1823, was published in a German journal, and the prevalence of crime must necessarily be inferred from the result.^p According to the same document, the number of persons tried for crimes during the same year, was not less than one thousand five hundred and sixty-six. It appears from the population at the time, that the individuals accused were to the rest of the inhabitants as one to a hundred and sixty-nine. To what can so frightful a state of society be attributed, unless to the remissness and imperfection of the laws?

Political commotions, changes in dynasties and government, a long residence of foreign armies, the corruption of morals, the ordinary consequence of wars and revolutions, the destruction of trade, and the difficulty of procuring the means of subsistence for the lower orders, tend to increase crimes in a country. It is then that wise legislators see the necessity of a new code adapted to the new wants of society. It is then that the laws must be simple, precise and distinct; it is then, above all, that the diffusion of education among the lower ranks, serves as a barrier against immorality. The government of Wirtemberg has experienced the advantages, that may be derived from the instruction of the people, it will without doubt finish what it has so successfully begun.

The great duchy of Baden forms a long and narrow tract that extends from the lake of Constance to the country beyond the mouth of the Neckar. Bounded by the course of the river on the south and the west, it is limited by Bavaria and the great duchy of Hesse on the north; by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the principalities of Hohenzollern on the east; its irregular frontiers on the

^p Allgemeine Handl. zect, Marz. 1825, p. 147.

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south-east are also contiguous to the same principalities. It may be unnecessary to mention the ancient people that inhabited the country; they were the Alemanni, of whom some account has been already given in the description of Wirtemberg.

**Extent and
surface.**

The length of the great dutchy may be equal to a hundred and sixty-two miles, the breadth to thirty-eight in the northern districts, seventy-six in the southern, and to ten near the centre. Crome considers the surface little less than two hundred and seventy-four German square miles, which being reduced into English measures, makes the whole superficies not less than three thousand two hundred and eighty-eight square miles.

Mountains.

The greater part of the country, particularly from the centre to the extremity on the south, consists of mountains and fruitful vallies; but the latter are comparatively insignificant both in number and extent. The mountainous country forms the highest part of the Schwarzwald or Black Forest. The most elevated summit or the Feldberg reaches to the height of 4610 feet above the level of the sea; the lowest or the Winterbauch does not exceed 1640.¹ The Storenberg, the Rosskopf, the Poelle and the Todnauerberg have become celebrated in military history, on account of the fine retreat made by General Moreau in 1796. The Herberg and part of the Odenwäld, two chains, in which the Kniebis is perhaps the most elevated point, extend to the northern extremity of the dutchy.

Formation.

The heights in the Black Forest, nearest the Rhine, are composed of granite, and those in the direction of Wir-

¹ We may mention the heights of some other mountains in the dutchy, as they are marked in the tables of Hassel.

Rosskopf	3633 feet.
Blauen	3597
Stockberg	3358
Egarten	2898
Hohekopf	2560
Kaltenbronn	2400
Kaiserstuhl	2050
Katzenbuckel	1780

temberg, are formed by sandstone and other rocks, belonging to what Werner and his disciples have termed the intermediate formation; of the same sort is the chain that extends northwards to the banks of the Neckar, and it appears too that trapp rocks and others of a volcanic origin, have been observed in these mountains. A belt of secondary limestone extends on the western declivities of the Schwarzwald; but the land beyond it on the banks of the Rhine, from Bale to Mannheim, belongs to the third formation, to the one succeeding the formation of chalk, and cotemperate with that in the neighbourhood of Paris.

No lakes, except that of Constance or the Bodensee, are ^{Marshes.} situated in the country; the same lake limits part of the great dutchy. The others are extensive marshes, which have been incorrectly denominated lakes; they are almost all situated in the mountainous territory, and at a considerable elevation; that of Schluch on the Feldberg, lies at the height of 2287 feet; the Echnner and several others are upwards of 1467 feet above the level of the sea.

The climate is mild and agreeable in the lower districts, ^{Climate.} or on the banks of the Rhine, the Maine and the Neckar; but the winters are very rigorous in the mountains and particularly in the chain of the Schwarzwald; even in summer the air is always keen, and the snow seldom melts in the highest region.

The forests in the great dutchy of Baden occupy a sur- ^{Forests, &c.} face of one million five hundred and eighty thousand acres; one million three hundred thousand are cultivated, two hundred and nine thousand are waste; three hundred and thirty-five thousand are in pasture, seventy-four thousand are planted with vines, and a hundred and fifty thousand belong to the different towns, burghs and villages. The heights are covered with thick forests of oaks and pines, but the low grounds and the vallies produce varied and abundant harvests. Crops of poor oats and potatoes can hardly be raised on the high country, and the cherry does not ripen before September; but the spectacle is very different on the plains; the vine, the almond, chesnut and

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products.

other fruit trees, different kinds of grain, hemp, lint and the plants most useful to man, grow luxuriantly, and diffuse wealth and plenty over the land:

Different products are obtained, their number and importance depend on the nature of the country. Many animals haunt the forests, game abounds in the fields, and a considerable revenue is derived from the fishings on the Rhine and the lake of Constance. Salmon are not uncommon, and the carp of the Rhine, some of which weigh more than forty pounds, are considered a great delicacy by the wealthy. But though not so well known as those that have been last mentioned, the ablet (*cyprinus alburnus*, Lin), is perhaps a more valuable fish. The shell of the ablet has given rise to a branch of commerce; it is exported into Saxony, France and Switzerland, and used in giving a lustre to imitation pearls, by which it is difficult to distinguish them from real.

Miner.

The mineral riches of the country, though not great, consist at least of different kinds; more than 12,000 hundredweights of iron are annually extracted, about 700 of lead and nearly 500 marks of silver. The other products are copper, zinc, arsenic, alum, coal and 4000 hundredweights of salt. Coarse and fine potter's clay, slates, marble and alabaster are found in several places; even gold might be mentioned among the metals, for particles of gold are collected on the alluvial deposits that are watered by the Rhine. A hundred and twenty individuals are employed in seeking it, but the quantity collected every year, does not exceed on an average 14,700.

Agricultural produce.
Industry.

That part of the Black Forest, situated within the great duchy, may rival Wirtemberg for its *Kirchenwasser*. Several vineyards are noted both for the quantity and quality of the wine produced on them; the best perhaps are those of Constance, on the banks of the lake, and next to them, the vineyards of Margraff and Bergstrasse.

The domestic animals, with the exception of the horse, are of a good kind. Many inhabitants are employed in weaving or manufacturing hemp and lint. The raw and

spun lint exported every year from the territory of Ettenheim, amounts in value to 30,000 florins; and the hardware trade in the district of Pforzheim, occasions a circulation of 1,700,000. Many wooden clocks and other articles, which it is unnecessary to enumerate, are sold in the Schwarzwald. It may suffice to state that notwithstanding the stagnation of commerce, there were a few years ago in the great duchy of Baden, nearly 75,000 workmen employed in different branches of labour.

The transit trade is very important, it consists chiefly in naval timber and other kinds of wood, that are exported to Switzerland, France and the Netherlands. The other exports are wines, corn, dried fruits, kirchen-wasser, tobacco, mineral water and hardware goods; the country receives in exchange French wines, salt, different manufactures, colonial produce and a number of horses.

Some genealogists have maintained that the family of Princes Baden was sprung from Gothic kings; others affirm it to have been founded in 684 by Etichon, a duke of Alsace. But it is certain that the seigniorship of Baden was raised into a margraviate by Henry the Fowler, about the commencement of the tenth century. Hermann, the son of Bertholet, and the first prince whom the chroniclers mention, flourished during the eleventh century; he derived from Judith, his first wife, the heiress of Baden, the principality from which his successors took the title of margraves. But the marquisate was governed by several families that became successively extinct. The country was made an electorate in 1802, and some years afterwards, it was erected into a great duchy.

It has been already observed that the population in Germany is annually increasing; the same remark may be still more applicable to the great duchy of Baden, than to many other states in the same country. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Stein in 1813, at 1,001,630.

* Dictionary of Moreri, article Baden.

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and by Hassel in 1822 at 1,040,700. But the increase has been still greater since that period. According to M. Adriani Balbi, the population in 1826, was not less than 1,130,000.^a Stein remarks in his geography, that the women were much more numerous than the men in 1813; indeed it appears from his calculation that the excess was equal to 31,343.^c The same writer attributes the disproportion to the ravages of war, and to the fact that many young men migrated to foreign countries in order to avoid the conscription. But it is not likely that these were the only causes, because M. Hassel has shown that there were 27,400 more women than men in the country during the third year after the peace, and because nearly the same population subsisted at a still later period in the year 1826. The blessings of peace, which Europe has so long enjoyed, are not then the sole causes of the increasing population; it must be partly attributed to the diffusion of wealth, and to such discoveries as vaccination; for during twenty years, the augmentation has not been sensibly diminished by all the evils of war. As to the difference in the number of the two sexes, it must be in a great degree occasioned by the frequent migrations that take place among the working classes, an important element, which does not appear to have entered into the calculations of statistical writers. It is difficult to believe that the men averse to the military life, are so numerous as Stein supposes, or that the habits of the people in Baden are so peaceful; they cannot be reproached for want of valour; besides, fear prevents very few in any country from entering the army.

Religion.

The reigning family of Baden adheres to the Augsburg confession; but nearly two-thirds of the population are Catholics; the other inhabitants are mostly Lutherans and Calvinists, the latter, however, do not make up a fourth part of the former; there are, besides, some Mennonites

^a See, Tableau de la Balance politique du globe.

^c Handbuch der Geographie und statistick.

and Jews, who enjoy all the rights of citizens.^a Several convents still remain in the great dutchy, but the purpose for which they were erected, has been altered, they now serve for places of education. By a law passed in 1811, no person can take the vows before the age of twenty-one; the period during which the vows last, is limited to three years, at the end of that time, the nuns may return to the world, and participate in its enjoyments. Silence, austerity, and almost all the obligations mentioned in the rules of different monastic orders, have been abolished.

The government of the great dutchy was purely monarchical; but the sovereign passed a decree on the 16th of March 1816; having announced his desire of securing the happiness, tranquillity and liberty of his subjects, he declared that these intentions could only be accomplished by granting them a constitution, in which the rights of the prince and the people might be more accurately determined. According to the same decree, which forms the basis of the constitution, the duke possesses the right of making peace or war, enacting laws, and levying contributions, dispensing mercy to criminals, conferring titles of nobility, and lastly, of approving or opposing the establishment of religious societies. The two chambers, or states, must be convoked at least once every two years; they fix the amount of the taxes and contributions, submit new laws to the consideration of the prince, or propose whatever may contribute to the prosperity of the state.

The conscription has not been abolished; but the Napoleon Code, which was introduced into the country, has

^a The proportion between the increase in the population and the different sects, being nearly the same; the following table, which Hassel considered correct in 1822, may still serve to show the numerical importance of the different sects.

Catholics,	705,850
Lutherans,	248,900
Calvinists,	69,100
Jews,	15,400
Mennonites and other sects,	1450.

BOOK CXXII. been succeeded by the Roman law, and the ancient customs that were established in the dutchy before the French conquest. A new system of weights and measures, according to the decimal divisions, may be considered the only benefit that the country has derived from its connexion with France.

Ranks.

The inhabitants are divided into four classes; the nobles, knights, burgesses and peasants. The nobles possess baronies and estates, to which different privileges are attached. The knights are the members of the four orders of knighthood instituted by the prince. The burgesses hold property or civil offices in the different towns; none can enjoy the rights of citizens, who cannot read, write and manage their own affairs.

Education.

Government has promoted education by different institutions, of which the inhabitants are daily reaping the advantages. It maintains two universities, those of Heidelberg and Freyburg; it has founded four lyceums, one at Constance, another at Baden, a third at Carlsruhe, and a fourth at Mannheim; it has contributed to the establishment of other schools, as the institution for the deaf and dumb, the academy of architecture, and the two commercial seminaries at Mannheim and Carlsruhe. There are besides in the principal towns, ten lyceums, fifteen schools, in seven of which Latin and Greek are taught, and also a school of theology for the Protestants at Merseburg, and another for the Catholics at Carlsruhe. But in the year 1815, government found it advisable to impose some restrictions on the power that a parent has of educating his children; according to an enactment made in that year, the sons of burgesses, merchants and peasants, who have no reasonable expectations of receiving a patrimony, equal at least to 8000 florins, are not permitted to study the law, or to choose the profession of the bar, unless indeed, they distinguish themselves in such a way as to afford indications of future talent or eminent success. The measures of government were rendered necessary by the difficulty experienced in finding employment for the lawyers and

attorneys in the country, as their number was three times greater than that required for conducting* all the business of the different courts. BOOK
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If the number of criminals in the great dutchy be compared with those in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, a very great difference will be found in that respect at least, between the two contiguous countries. According to the reports which we have perused, the number of persons who are prosecuted annually for crimes, varies from six to seven hundred; so that the proportion between those accused of crimes and the other inhabitants, is as one to sixteen hundred.

It appears from the report made to the chambers in 1825, concerning the administration from the year 1821 to 1823, that the mean term of the revenue may be estimated at 9,586,000 florins; according to the reports relative to the expenditure, it may amount to 9,497,000.* The national debt was equal in 1820 to 19,000,000 florins, and the expenses of the civil list to 2,000,000. Finances.

The great dutchy of Baden is obliged to furnish a contingent of ten thousand men to the Germanic confederation. The army consists of an effective force equal to eleven thousand men, and a reserve amounting to seven thousand. The Jews in the country, having been long averse to the military service, the individuals amongst them, on whom the conscription falls, are each permitted to deposit 400 florins at the office of the war department, and these sums are given to substitutes, who are always very willing to enter the army on such conditions.

There are seven principalities and two counties in the Political
divisions.

* Revenue.	
1821	9,651,827 florins.
1822	9,597,938
1823	9,508,955
Expenditure.	
1821	9,849,287 florins.
1822	9,323,624
1823	9,320,444

See the German work entitled Hertha, 1825.

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great dutchy, and the noble proprietors of these states enjoy many important privileges. The country has been divided into six circles, bearing the names of the different rivers and the lake of Constance, and containing a hundred and eight towns, thirty-six burghs, two thousand four hundred and twenty-seven villages and hamlets, a hundred and fifty-four thousand seven hundred and ten houses, which, according to the lowest calculations, were valued in the different insurance offices some years ago, at three hundred and fifty millions of florins.

Language. The inhabitants of Baden speak a harsh and guttural dialect, that appears to be composed of German and Slavonic; but it is different in different districts, particularly at the two extremities of the country; thus, it is easy to distinguish by their pronunciation natives of the Schwarzwald from those of the Odenwald.

Towns. Wertheim, a town situated at the confluence of the Maine and the Tauber, is a mediate possession of prince Loewenstein under the sovereignty of the great duke. It is encompassed with walls, and defended by two castles; it contains 3500 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in leather, spirits and wines; the conveyance of goods on the Maine forms an important part of their commerce.

Manheim. Manheim, the largest town in the great dutchy, has thrice within a century and a half, experienced the fatal effects of war. Devastated by the Bavarians in 1662, the town was hardly repaired, before it was included in the destruction of the Palatinate, a decree, that disgraces for ever the administration of Louvois. The fury of the French soldiers could not be restrained, almost all the houses

• The following are the names of the circles.

	Chief Towns.
1 ^o . Circle of the Maine and Tauber,	Wertheim
2 ^o . _____ Neckar,	Manheim.
3 ^o . _____ Murg and Pfins,	Durlach.
4 ^o . _____ Kingzig,	Offenburg.
5 ^o . _____ Treisam,	Freyburg.
_____ See or Lake,	Constance.

were demolished, and the generals of Lewis the Fourteenth saw their men plunder the tombs of the palatines. Rebuilt by its princes, it was bombarded in 1795 by the republican armies of France, and a great many of its buildings were reduced to ashes. But its advantageous situation at the confluence of the Neckar and the Rhine, the importance of its commerce and manufactures, which consist in linen and woollen stuffs, and jewellery made chiefly of the alloy, that is known by the name of *Manheim gold*, have contributed to restore it to its ancient prosperity.

The population amounts, according to Hassel, to 21,525 ^{Population.} persons. The streets are broad and straight; there are four squares, two fountains, a ducal castle, and a large building, which contains the mint and seven churches; the finest part of the same edifice was the ancient residence of the Jesuits, and it still attests their former wealth and power. The observatory, enriched with every useful instrument for astronomical purposes, might be considered an ornament to any town. It possesses besides a theatre of anatomy, a school of midwifery, a botanical garden, a museum of natural history, a library, a gallery of paintings, and a collection of antiquities. It is unnecessary to mention its lyceum, but it may be observed that a meteorological society has been instituted, and some of the members have distinguished themselves by their researches in a department of knowledge, which is still in its infancy.*

Heidelberg is situated to the south-east of Manheim, at ^{Heidelberg.} ten leagues above it, on the banks of the Neckar. The town was founded in the twelfth century; it contains at present about 10,500 inhabitants. The houses are generally well built, and some of the squares have been much admired. More than seven hundred students attend its university, which ranks with the most ancient in Germany; indeed one cannot observe without interest the different establishments for the instruction of youth, the botanical gardens, the numerous museums, the collections of philosophi-

* See Die sternwarte zu Manuheim beschrieben vom staatsrath Kuher.

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cal instruments, and the valuable libraries. The most celebrated scholars in Europe met at Heidelberg during the sixteenth century. It was the residence of Olimpia Fulvia Morata, who was not less distinguished by her virtuous and exemplary life, than by the extent of her learning, and the superiority of her genius. Compelled to take refuge in Germany, on account of her attachment to protestantism, she filled the chair of ancient languages in the university of Heidelberg, and was considered a prodigy of learning, although not more than twenty-nine years of age at the time of her death.* Francis Junius was one of the celebrated men that have been born in the town, he wrote several valuable works on the ancient languages and antiquities of the north.

**Castle.
Tun.**

A castle has been built on the hill that commands Heidelberg; there too may be observed the famous tun, which was substituted for the one broken by the French during the reign of Lewis the Fourteenth. It contains 130,000 gallons, and the weight of the iron that encircles it, is upwards of 12000 hundredweights. The first hot houses in Europe were built near the same castle; from its walls may be seen the finest country in the ancient palatinate, the fruitful vineyards of Heidelberg and Weinheim, a small town of 4500 inhabitants, situated near the frontiers of ducal Hesse.

**Other
towns.**

The ramparts of Philipsburgh were destroyed by Lewis of Bourbon, and the place was taken forty years afterwards by Lewis, dauphin of France. The castle, formerly inhabited by the sovereign bishop of Spire, is situated in the small town of Bruchsal, which contains a population of nearly six thousand individuals. Durlach, situated in a fruitful plain on the Plinz, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants.

Carlsruhe.

Carlsruhe or Karlsruhe, the capital of the great dutchy and the chief town of a circle, is situated at the height of three hundred and seventy feet above the sea. It is built with much

* *MUSEE DES PROTESTANS CÉLÈBRES, tom. II., NOUVEAU DICTIONNAIRE DE FRANCE.*

regularity, the streets are straight, all of them terminate in front of the ducal castle; and diverge from each other in the form of a fan. That singular arrangement has a very fine effect when the town is illumined. The gardens and woods that extend opposite the castle, form agreeable public walks, and the residence of the prince, must be admired by every one for its elegant yet simple architecture. There are different collections in the town, but the most valuable are the ducal library and museum of the prince. The buildings are finer than in most places of the same size; the Reformed and Catholic churches are considered the best works of the celebrated architect Weinbrenner. The theatre is a light and elegant building, and if our limits would permit, it might be worth while to describe some of the private houses on account of their architecture. The population of Carlsruhe amounts to sixteen thousand individuals; as it is the residence of the court, it cannot be supposed a place of trade, still however it has been long known for its different articles of luxury, such as jewellery, watches, household furniture and carriages.

Reuchlin, one of the most remarkable men that flourished in the sixteenth century, both for his erudition and bold opinions concerning the reformation of Christianity, attempted to prove that Phorzheim, his native town, was founded by Phorcys, the Trojan auxiliary of Priam. Other learned men, that lived during the same period, believed that the town was formerly called Orcynheim, from the name of the vast forest mentioned by Julius Cæsar, and which ancient writers designated the *Sylva Hercynia* or *Orcynia*. It has been affirmed, on the authority of these fanciful etymologies, that the town which the Romans called *Porta Hercyniæ*, was no other place than Pforzheim. Its antiquity may be considered doubtful, indeed it is very probable that it was not known to the ancients. Pforzheim is situated on the base of the Schwarzwald, at the confluence of the Enz, the Nagold and the Wurm; its population, according to Hassel, exceeds six thousand five

Fabulous
origin of
Phorazheim.

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hundred individuals. It contains a house of correction and an orphan hospital; it carries on an important trade in naval timber.

Roman
town.

The ruins of a Roman town were discovered between Dourlach and Ettlingen in the year 1802; but antiquaries have not yet agreed as to the name of the place.

Rastadt.

Rastadt, on the banks of the Murg, owes its celebrity to the congresses that have been held within its walls, and to the massacre of the deputies of the French republic. It contains about two thousand four hundred souls. A ducal castle, the principal edifice, may be remarked not only for its romantic site, but for the Turkish trophies and other collections, which have been placed in it. The trade, which it has long enjoyed, may be considered great in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; its cutlery and snuff-boxes are exported to different parts of Germany.

Baden.

Baden or Baaden, a place about six miles from Rastadt, has derived its name from its mineral springs and from baths, which were well known and frequented in the time of the Romans. The antiquities that have been found in the vicinity, form a valuable collection. The town is peopled by more than three thousand inhabitants. None of the buildings can vie with the ancient college of the Jesuits.

Marshal
Turenne.

A road from Baden to Offenburg passes through the village of Sassbach, where the traveller cannot see without emotion an old and decayed walnut tree, for it was there that Turenne expired on the twenty-seventh of July 1675. The virtues and military glory of that great man are appreciated by all, they are admired in other countries as much as in France. A detachment of veterans is stationed in the village; to observe their sergeant describe the engagement, and show the cannon ball that put a period to the hero's career, one might imagine that Turenne had died in the last campaigns of Germany.

Offenburg.
Other
towns.

The small town of Offenburg contains about 3000 inhabitants, and the lands belonging to it are fruitful in vineyards. The population of Lahr or Lohr has much increased of

late ; it may amount at present to nearly five thousand inhabitants. The cause of its prosperity must be ascribed to its trade, which is becoming greater every year. Freiburg or *Freiburg* stands on the banks of the Treisam, at the base of the mountains in the Black Forest. Peopled by ten thousand five hundred inhabitants, possessing a gymnasium, an university, that is still well attended, and different scientific collections, it has been considered one of the most important towns in the dutchy. The houses are well built, the cathedral has been remarked for its architecture and lofty tower, that rises to the height of five hundred feet.

Breisach or Old Brisach, or as the Germans call it *All-Briesach*, is supposed to have been founded by Drusus ; if that opinion be correct, it was probably the ancient capital of the *Brisagavi*, a German tribe, subject to the Alemanni. The fortifications of Breisach were destroyed by Mary Theresa. It contains about two thousand five hundred inhabitants ; although watered by the Rhine, it is not a place of much trade.

It may be readily inferred from the nature of the country, and the mountains in the Black Forest, that few towns of any consequence are situated in the southern part of the dutchy. The only two that can be mentioned are Willingen and Constance. But before we leave the chain of the Schwarzwald, it may be stated that the thermal springs near the small village of Badenweiler have been known for more than two thousand years. It was founded by the Romans, the remains of their works are still apparent, some of them occupy an extent of two hundred and twenty feet in length, and nearly eighty in breadth.

Willingen is situated near the confines of Wirtemberg, in a lofty valley on the banks of the Brig ; it contains a population of three thousand three hundred individuals. Another town, Constance or Konstanz, has been built in the same circle, more important perhaps than the last place from the number of its inhabitants, and better known from the council that was held within its walls in the year

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1451. Constance gives its name to the lake on which it stands. The two most zealous precursors of the reformation, John Huss and Jerome of Prague, were condemned to death by a decree of the council. Indignant at the corruption of the clergy, they chose rather to be burnt alive than to recant their opinions on the necessity of abolishing abuses.

The following remarkable passage for the time, may be found in the treatise on the church, a work written by Huss in the year 1413. "The church may be defined a mystical body, of which the head is Jesus Christ, and the members, the just and the predestined. The latter cannot be separated from the church by an unjust excommunication; *their spirit beareth witness to his spirit that they are the children of God.*

The sovereign pontiff, the cardinals, the bishops belong to the body of the church, but the sovereign pontiff is not the chief. The church would exist, although there were neither pope, cardinals nor bishops. Popes, cardinals, bishops and priests cease to be members of the church by the commission of sin. Whatsoever ye bind in earth, says our Saviour to his apostles, shall be bound in heaven, whatsoever ye loose in earth, shall be loosed in heaven. If the popes, as the successors of the apostles, claim the same power, it can only be exercised through Jesus Christ, for as it requires an infinite power to justify a sinner, it must be the attribute of the divinity. No sins can be remitted, without repentance on the part of the sinner, absolution of itself therefore cannot be sufficient. The faithful, without doubt, owe a reasonable obedience to their bishops; but Christians have a surer guide for their conduct than the word of man, they have the word of God, contained in the Old and New Testaments."

Martyrdom
of Huss.

A turret, in the ancient convent of the Franciscans, served as a prison for Huss, who was burnt in the suburbs of Constance. Jerome of Prague shared the same fate, as undaunted as his friend, it is said when the executioner endeavoured to kindle the funeral pile behind him, the mar-

tyr desired him to set fire to it in front, adding, that had he been afraid of death, he might have escaped from his judges. BOOK
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Constance, formerly a free and imperial town, is ill peopled in proportion to its size; it contains only four thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets and houses are well built, the finest edifices are the ducal castle and episcopal palace. Its academy, gymnasium and lyceum are richly endowed. The trade of Constance was formerly more considerable than at present; it consists of wine and grain, linen and wood. Constance.

Government may be commended for the enlightened views, to which the prosperity of the state must in a great measure be attributed. Judicious retrenchments have been proposed and enforced. The public funds are not wasted in encouraging a spirit of speculation, as fatal to national welfare, as gambling is to individual happiness. But although such projects are always opposed, the administration is not averse to any plan by which the wants of the people may be diminished. An inhabitant of Carlsruhe, animated by that philanthropic zeal which can excite men to good and generous actions, persuaded his townsmen in 1824 to raise a fund for the foundation of a workhouse, where every artisan without employment might find occupation, and every unfortunate person, skilled in any branch of industry might obtain the means of subsistence. The government promoted the accomplishment of the plan, and unless it had done so, the efforts of the inhabitants might have been unavailing. The public authorities have also approved and adopted the measures taken by a number of wealthy merchants and clergymen, to assist and find employment for the poor throughout the country. Adminis-
tration.

Other interests of a more general nature have not escaped the attention of government. It appears from a treaty made in 1824, that the utmost freedom of trade Freedom of
trade.

^b M. Sommelatt was the founder of this excellent institution. See his memoir entitled: *Einladung an alle Menschen freunde und patrioten Badens.*

BOOK CXXII. was established between the great dutchies of Baden and Hesse, and at a later period between all the states in the confederation.^c The object of the treaty was to extend the commercial intercourse of the two principalities with foreign countries, and to facilitate the circulation of commodities by taking away the restraints which shortsighted statesmen had judged necessary for the prosperity of nations. Although the effect of these changes has been to unite the interests of the two dutchies; similar changes have not been introduced into other countries—still it is no uninteresting spectacle to see secondary powers set the world an example of that harmony which renders unnecessary expensive establishments on the frontiers and coasts of different countries, establishments that tend only to encourage fraud, and prevent the inhabitants of civilized nations from enjoying the mutual advantages of their industry.

Principalities of Hohenzollern.

The principalities that remain to be mentioned, are not of much importance, they may be shortly described. According to some genealogists, the family of Hohenzollern has existed for more than a thousand years. But so many families in Germany claim a like antiquity, that their ancient origin excites neither interest nor surprise. The filiation of the family may be traced from Frederick Count of Hohenzollern, who flourished in the thirteenth century. The same house was afterwards divided into two branches, and their possessions were erected into principalities during the eighteenth century at the diet of Ratisbon. The two families are distinguished by the names of the towns in which they reside—Heckingen and Sigmaringen. Their territories are surrounded by the kingdom of Wirtemberg, and the great dutchy of Baden.

Hohenzollern-Heckingen.

The principality of Hohenzollern-Heckingen may be about sixty-four square miles in superficial extent; the population amounts to fifteen thousand inhabitants, almost

^c Extra Bellage zu, No. 258 der Carlsruher-Zeitung.

all of them are Catholics. The country abounds with sandstone and calcareous rocks, containing organic remains. BOOK
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The hills form part of a chain that extends from the Black Forest to the eastern extremity of Wirtemberg. The Zollenberg or highest hill is not more than 2600 feet above the level of the sea. The most of the heights are covered with trees. The revenues of the state are equal to 120,000 florins, and the contingent for the confederation to a hundred and forty-five men.

Heckingen, the capital, is situated at the foot of a hill Heckingen. watered by the Startzel; it may contain about 2600 inhabitants. The old castle of Hohenzollern rises on the heights above the town. It was built in the fifteenth century on the site of the one which was destroyed by Henrietta, countess of Wirtemberg and Montbelliard. The building was founded with much pomp and solemnity; Nicolas, count of Hohenzollern, Philip, duke of Burgundy, Albert, elector of Brandenburg, Charles, margrave of Baden, and Albert, duke of Austria, carried silver trowels or silver hammers, and laid the foundation stone in 1460. A valuable collection of armour may still be seen in one of the halls.

Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen lies to the south of the last principality; its surface and population are greater; Hohenzollern and Sigmaringen. Crome makes out the former to be equal to three hundred and twelve English square miles, and Hassel supposes the latter equal to thirty-eight thousand inhabitants. The soil belongs to what German geologists have termed the second and third formations. The country for the most part is sterile, but some of the plains yield rich harvests. The revenues amount to 300,000 florins, and the prince furnishes a contingent of 370 men to the confederation.

Although Sigmaringen on the Danube is the royal residence, it contains only eight hundred inhabitants. Sigmaringen. Hailgerloch, the only city in the principality, for all the other places are burghs, stands at the foot of a hill; it is sur-

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Liechten-
stein.

rounded with rocks, and watered by the Eyach. The population may be equal to 2000 individuals.

Liechtenstein, one of the smallest principalities in Germany does not contain more than five thousand eight hundred persons, who inhabit a surface of thirty-six square miles. The revenue does not exceed 3000 florins, and the state furnishes a contingent of fifty-five men. It is situated on the banks of the Rhine, at the distance of nearly fifteen miles from the lake of Constance. The house of Liechtenstein is descended from Azo IV. duke of Este, who died in the year 1037. It possessed seventy-three seignories during the succeeding centuries;^d and it still possesses under the sovereignty of Austria and Prussia two considerable principalities, those of Troppau and Joegerndorf, together with other lands, of which the total population cannot be less than 324,000 inhabitants. The revenues according to Stein, are upwards of 1,500,000 florins.^e The prince may thus be enabled to maintain the rank of his ancient family.

Vadutz, a burgh on the banks of the Rhine, contains seven hundred souls. The castle of Liechtenstein, where the prince resides, rises at no great distance from it.

^d Mich. Reinhard: Brevarium hist. Licht.

^e Stein's Geography.

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EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Germany.—Seventh Section.—Kingdom of Bavaria.

THE ancient dutchy of Bavaria, perhaps the largest of the German principalities, was the one that maintained the most numerous army. Having since been raised into a kingdom, it obtained by the last treaties additional territory, but the inhabitants have derived more important advantages from an enlightened and economical government. It is bounded by the kingdom of Saxony, ducal Saxony, and electoral Hesse, on the north, by the great dutchies of Hesse and Baden, and also by the kingdom of Wirtemberg on the west; by the states of the Austrian empire on the south and east. The superficial extent of the former dutchy was supposed equal to 1359 German geographical miles, or not less than 22,663 English square miles, but if the recent additions on the left bank of the Rhine be included, it may amount to 1499 German or 25,002 English square miles. Adhering to the same plan that was followed in the account of Prussia, the whole territory between Austria and Wirtemberg, may be considered as forming the kingdom of Bavaria proper; it may be as well to make some remarks on its physical geography, to enter into the satistical details connected with it, and afterwards to examine separately the Bavarian province on the banks of the Rhine.

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Bavaria.

Bavaria proper comprehends almost the whole country enclosed by the Rauhe-Alp, and the Spessart on the west, by the Rhœne-Gebirge, the Thuringer-Wald and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the north, by the Bœhmer-Wald on the east, and by different heights connected with the Alps on the west. That extensive region is naturally divided into two parts; the Regnitz waters the first or the northern, which forms the basin of the Maine. It consists of two branches that extend from the place where the Regnitz leaves its source; the one or the Frank-Hœhe bends to the right, and unites with the Fichtel-Gebirge; the other or the Steiger-Wald reaches nearly to the chain of the Spessart, from which it is only separated by the course of the Maine. The principal inclination of the basin is from south to north, and the Regnitz follows the same direction, before it unites with the Maine. The southern basin or the larger of the two is trasversed by the Danube, and formed by ramifications of the Frank-Hœhe, Steiger-Wald and other mountains that have been already mentioned. The heights that rise on the north of the river are much lower than those on the south, and the streams it receives on the left, are by no means so large as the feeders that enter by the right or opposite bank. The three largest rivers on the left side are the Atmühl, which descends from the Steiger-Wald, the Nab, that flows from the Fichtel-Gebirge, and the Regen that has its source in the Bœhmer-Wald. The rivers, like the mountains on the right bank, are more important; the largest are the Iller, the Lech, the Isar and the Inn; they rise from the Alps. The principal declivities in the basin incline to the north east; the different mountains enclose wide vallies or low and humid plains. The most extensive of these plains, or the one between Ratisbon and Osterhofen, may be about forty-five miles in length, and nearly as many in breadth.

Thus, the basin of the Danube marks distinctly the separation of two great mountainous ranges, that of the Alps on the south of the river, and the Hercynio-Carpathians

on the north, a separation which we have had already occasion to observe in the chapter on the physical geography of Europe. It is unnecessary to mention a second time the height of the Alpine summits which, like the Wartzmann and the Hochvogel, rise above the mountains in the south of Bavaria;^a but it may be remarked that the Böhmer-Wald and the Fichtel-Gebirge on the eastern limits, vary in height from three thousand to upwards of five thousand feet.^b

The general arrangement of these mountains has been described in a former chapter; but it may be requisite to give a more minute account of the Spessart, Rhœne-Gebirge and Böhmer-Wald in order to complete the physical geography of Bavaria.

The chain of the Spessart commences on the banks of the Maine, at the place where the course of the river separates it from the chain of the Oden-Wald. The extremity on the side of the Maine bears the name of Engelsberg; it inclines to the north, but some of its branches extend to the south-west or south-east, and join the Rhœne-Gebirge; different streams, most of which are tributary to the Maine, descend from these heights. The mean elevation of the chain may be about thirteen hundred and thirty-six feet; some of the mountains, however, are considerably higher; the Hohe-Wart rises to the height of two thousand feet, and the Geyersberg or the loftiest in the range, to two thousand and eighty.

Volcanic rocks are observed in the Spessart, but the most frequent are granite, gneiss, syenite and porphyry, which serve as a support for sandstone, argil and calcareous rocks.

^a See the table of the heights of the different European mountains.

^b As several mountains have not been mentioned in the general table, the heights of the loftiest summits may be now stated. We adhere to the measurements of Hassel.

Hohe-Staufen near Reichen-Hall,	-	-	5,408 feet.
Grunten near Sonthofen,	-	#	4,160
Ochsen-Kopf or Ox's Head, (Fichtel-Gebirge,)			3,394
Koessein,	-	(Idem)	3,060

BOOK CXXXIII. Veins of copper, cobalt and iron are found in the primitive but oftener in the secondary rocks. As to the form of the hills, the most of them are rounded, and gentle declivities extend to a considerable distance; it is only in the neighbourhood of Aschaffenburg, that the stranger observes steep heights and pyramidal summits.^c

Rhœne-
Gebirge.

The Rhœne-Gebirge are more extensive than the Spessart; they unite on the west with the chain of the Vogelsberg, and on the east with the Thuringer-Wald. Their mean elevation exceeds that of the Spessart, and they furnish two feeders to the Maine,—the Sinn and the Saale. Granite rocks rise at the western extremity, secondary calcareous rocks rest above them on the declivities, and basaltic deposits are observed in different directions.

Fichtel-
Gebirge.

The Fichtel-Gebirge, which connect the Rhœne mountains with the Bœhmer-Wald, consist chiefly of granite; the highest point in the range is the summit of the Ochsenkopf.

Two small rivers descend from the Fichtel-Gebirge, and form the Maine; the inhabitants call one of these streams the White Main; the other or the Red Main flows to it from the south. The bed of the former at Culmbach has been found to be a hundred and thirty-six feet higher than the bed of the latter at Bayreuth. The declivity in the basin of the Maine from east to west or from Bayreuth to Wurtzburg, a distance of nearly sixty miles, is upwards of six hundred feet.^d

Bœhmer-
Wald.

The chain of the Bœhmer-Wald joins the Fichtel-Gebirge; it commences at the sources of the Eger, and terminates at the Moravian mountains, which shall afterwards be more fully mentioned.

Length.

The Bœhmer-Wald may be about two hundred miles in length; its breadth on the north-west may vary from

^c See the topographical essay on the Spessart by M. Behlem; a German work.

^d See the astronomical and geographical correspondence of the Baron de Zach. Volume XIII.

fifteen to twenty near the centre, and from the twenty-four to more than thirty on the south. It rises gradually from the northern extremity to the neighbourhood of Waldmünchen; the highest point is situated near Swiesel, and the chain becomes gradually lower, until it unites with the Moravian mountains. The most elevated summits are the Arber, the Rachel and the Dreysel.* The range is very steep on the side of Bavaria, but much less so towards Bohemia. Several branches connected with the same heights, extend into the former country, the most important are the Greiner-Wald and the Bayer-Wald; the first rises near Waldmünchen; the Regen, a feeder of the Danube descends from its southern declivities; the other or the Bayer-Wald reaches from Mount Rachel to Ratisbon, and separates the course of the Danube from the Regen.

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The last is not the only river that has its source in the Böhmer-Wald, and follows the declivities in the basin of the Danube. The Ilz rises from the base of mount Rachel, and several streams which form the Nab, flow from the same range and the Fichtel-Gebirge. The lower parts of the Böhmer-Wald are composed of granite, which supports masses of gneiss and micaceous schistus. One may observe on these heights deep cavities and numerous marshes; the summits resemble needles or pyramids, and the forests on the southern sides afford shelter to the lynx and the bear.

Two distinct geological formations are separated in Bavaria by the course of the Danube. The land on the north of the river, including the country between the basin of the Regnitz and the Maine, belongs to the ancient formation, it contains muschel-kalk, zechstein, other rocks of the same sort, as well as quadersandstein and quartz. The vast deposits that extend to the south, from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the Danube, belong to the third formation; they rest on more ancient rocks, which

Lands on
the south
and north of
the Danube.

* The last mountain may be about two thousand eight hundred and eighty-four feet above the level of the sea.

- **BOOK CXXIII.** are supported on the granite that extends from the chain of the Alps.

Fossil bones.

The alluvial lands on the north of the river are of an earlier formation than those in southern Bavaria; geologists have discovered in them the bones of the animals that inhabited our planet at a time when its climate and productions rendered it unfit for the residence of man. The fossil bones of the tapir and rhinoceros have been found in the valley of the Regen; crocodiles in the calcareous schistus in the valley of the Altmühl; the remains of elephants, which must have been much larger than any that exist at present, have been collected near Schweinfurth and Arnstein in the valley of the Main. Some caverns in the Steiger-Wald are filled with the bones of lions and hyenas. The remains of animals now wholly extinct may be observed in other places; in short, it is difficult to mention a more interesting country than Bavaria to those who are engaged in the most attractive department of natural history.

Lakes.

The highest and most southern portion of Bavaria is exposed to the influence of the Alps. The lakes are numerous, and some of them are large; thus, besides the lake of Constance, a very small part of which is situated in the kingdom, eight others of considerable extent might be mentioned. The greatest are the Ammer, the Wurm and the Chiem; a river of the same name issues from the first, and throws itself into the Isar. The Alz, a feeder of the Inn, flows from the Chiem. The others that may be enumerated, are the Staffel, the Kochel, the Walchen, the Tegern and the Bartholomeus or royal lake. These lakes, and many more of a smaller size, are not without their value to the inhabitants; several fisheries have been established on them, and a lucrative branch of industry has thus been produced.^f

^f The following, according to the most authentic maps, are the dimensions of these lakes:—

	Length. Miles.	Mean Breadth. Miles.
Ammer	10	2½
Wurm	11½	2½

The most frequented mineral springs in Bavaria are those at Siechersreuth in the picturesque country of the Fichtel-Gibirge, the baths of Kissingen situated in a valley watered by the Saale, about thirty-two miles distant from Wurtzburg; the others in the same part of the country are the acidulated and ferruginous sources of Bocklet and Bruckenuau. Munich is supplied with mineral water from Hardecker in the southern part of the kingdom.

The climate on the whole is temperate and salubrious; the elevation of the soil, and the neighbourhood of the mountains occasion however considerable modifications in the temperature. The winds are cold in the countries to the south of the Danube, the winters too are long and severe; but that region is the highest of any in Bavaria, and the most exposed to the influence of the eternal glaciers on the Alps. The prevalence of the north-east winds renders the climate cold and dry throughout the Bœhmer-Wald. Much rain falls in many places during the spring, and the heat of summer is sometimes excessive in the vallies.

Before we make any remarks on the natural productions, agricultural wealth and commerce of Bavaria, it may be as well to give some account of the ancient people, who occupied the country. It was formerly inhabited by two nations that were separated from each other by the Danube. The *Hermunduri* possessed the lands on the north of the river, and the country on the south was peopled by the *Vindelici*. The *Narisci*, a people less important than either of the two former, were settled in the country that extends from the declivities of the Bœhmer-Wald or Bo-

	Length. Miles.	Mean Breadth. Miles.
Chiem	9	3½
Staffel	4	1½
Kochel	4	2½
Walchen	5	2½
Tegern	4	1½
Bartholoméus	4	1½

BOOK CXXIII. hemian forest^a to the banks of the Danube, and from the embouchure of the Nab to that of the Ilz.

Hermunduri.

The Hermunduri, says Tacitus, adored Mars and Mercury; they were often engaged in contests and bloody wars with the *Catti*, their northern neighbours. Their enemies were devoted to the gods, and if they proved victorious, all the vanquished, men women and children, were slaughtered without remorse.^b The same people yielded however to the arms of the Romans, and became their faithful allies. Thus they were the only people that were permitted to travel through the neighbouring colonies. While, continues the historian, other nations are only allowed to see our arms and camps, our town and country houses are open to the Hermunduri.^c

Narisci.

The Narisci, who according to Tacitus, inhabited a country in the neighbourhood of the last people, were not inferior to them in bravery and courage.^k

The ancients have left us but little information relative to the Narisci; nothing remarkable concerning them is mentioned by Ptolemy or Dion Cassius; it may however be observed that the first writer calls them the *Varisti*, and the second the *Naristæ*.

Vindelici.

The Vindelici were scattered over the country which extends from the lake of Constance to the confluence of the Inn and the Danube; the last river served for a boundary. According to D'Anville, the Vindelici were so called from two rivers, the ancient *Vindo* or the modern Wertach, and the ancient *Licus* or the modern Lech.^l As they were settled on the banks of these rivers from the most remote antiquity, such an etymology does not appear improbable. The Vindelici were subject to the Romans who, after their

^a Ptolemy, liber II. chap. II. Strabo calls the same forest *Sylva Gabreta*.

^b Tacitus, Annals, book XIII. sect. 57.^c

^c Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 42.

^k Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum, sect. 41.

^l Geographie ancienne, tome I. page 47.

subjugation, called the country *Vindelicia* ; it was at a later period joined to Rhetia, (*provincia Rætia*), where several Roman colonies were settled. BOOK
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The most important of these settlements appears to have Settlements. been the *Augusta Vindelicorum* or the present Augsburg, which according to different documents formed *Oppidum Augusti*, or the town of Augustus. *Gambodunum*, another place of some consequence, was probably built on the site of Kempten. Ratisbon on the Danube, or Regensburg as it is sometimes called, was the ancient *Regina*, a name derived from the Regen, at the confluence of which it stands. Passau was the former *Batava-Castra* ; Neu-Oetting near Muldorf seems to have been the Pons Œni, at all events, the remains of a Roman way are situated in the neighbourhood.

Bavaria is the most ancient dutchy in Germany ; it has retained its name, title, and even part of its constitution since the fifth century. Bavaria
during the
middle ages. The Germans call it Bayern, a name which has probably some connection with that of *Boii*, an ancient people, who were driven back into Bohemia by the Romans, and left their country about the middle of the fifth century along with the barbarians that have been denominated Ostrogoths.

Aldiger or Aldeger is believed to have been the first Chiefs. chief or duke of Bavaria ; he formed the design in common with other German princes, of accompanying Clovis, and sharing his conquests ; but after the victory at Tolbiac, Clovis confined the Germans within their former limits, and compelled the Bavarians and their chief to acknowledge his authority. To diminish the chances of a successful revolt, a colony of Franks was settled in that part of Germany, which has since been called Franconia, and the dukes of Bavaria were made tributary to its sovereigns. The Bavarians began to embrace Christianity in the time of Theudo the Third, the grandson of Aldiger ; they submitted to the kings of Austrasia, after the vast monarchy of the Franks was divided.

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Thassilon.

The weakness of the last Merovingian kings enabled the Bavarians to shake off the yoke; the country recovered its freedom about the year 786, but much about the same time, Thassilo, a Bavarian duke of the Agilolfingian family, excited a rebellion in different parts of Germany, which was not quelled until Charlemagne marched against him, and forced him to acknowledge his sovereignty. Thassilo having revolted a second time in the following year, was cited before the diet at Ingelheim, accused of high treason, and condemned to death. But his punishment was commuted by Charlemagne, who deprived him of his dominions, and confined him first in the abbey of Lauresheim, and afterwards in the monastery of Jumiege. Thassilo, although a weak prince became an excellent monk, and died with a great reputation for sanctity.

The country divided
by Charle-
magne.

Charlemagne, having made himself master of Bavaria, divided it into several counties, and appointed rulers and princes over them. The government of the same country was again changed after the division of the monarchy between the sons of Lewis, surnamed the German, who chose Ratisbon for the place of his residence. The dominions of Lewis were inherited by his children, and Carloman became king of Bavaria. Arnoult or Arnold, the natural son of Carloman, succeeded his father, and was elected king of Germany.

Margraves.

Luitpold or Leopold was probably the first who was named Margrave of the country by the German kings in the ninth century. The dignity of count or duke of Bavaria was not hereditary, the emperors conferred it on different princes until the thirteenth century; at that time Lewis the Old, of the house of Wittelsbach, duke of Lower Bavaria, and count palatine of the Rhine, left two sons, Rodolphus and Lewis, who were the founders of the Palatine or Rodolphine, and the Bavarian or Ludovician families. The lineal descendants of the Ludovician branch, retained the duchy of Bavaria, which was raised into an electorate in 1618, it became extinct in the year 1777.

and a collateral descendant of the palatine family is at present seated on the throne of Bavaria.^m

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The soil in the higher part of the kingdom, is of an ordinary quality, but the plains and low vallies are very productive. The lands in the northern districts are for the most part light, the soil in the south is heavy and fruitful. The Bavarian government has encouraged agriculture, but it may be necessary in the first place to overcome the ignorance and indolent habits of the peasantry, which are obstacles to every sort of improvement.

More than a third part of the ground on the Isar, the lower Danube and the Regen, is still uncultivated; with- in the last few years, marshes have been drained at the expense of government, and waste lands have been rendered arable. But these operations are attended with a considerable outlay of capital, their accomplishment is thus retarded, although their utility has been always admitted. The differences, which are obvious in the cultivation of the same sort of land in a country under the same government, can only be attributed to the knowledge or ignorance of the agriculturists. A more improved system of cultivation than any other in Bavaria, may be observed in the circles of Rezat, the upper Danube, the upper and lower Maine; in the same districts too, the harvests are most abundant. The products, it must be confessed, are not so great as in lower Saxony and Flanders; still the inhabitants are industrious and not ignorant of their true interests. The last mentioned districts are the wealthiest in Bavaria, and the rich harvests that are reaped in them compensate in some degree for the deficiency in other parts of the country.

The circles of the upper and lower Maine, yield not only different kinds of grain, but wine and fruits. Agriculture, which was formerly neglected on the heights of the Spessart, has made great advances of late years. Po-

^m See Historisch-Statistische Uebersicht soemmdlicher Provinzen und Bestandtheile des Koenigreichs Baiern, by J. Marx, baron of Leichtenstern.

BOOK tatoes and bread form the principal food of the inhabit-
CXXIII. ants. The harvests in some other districts, as well as on
these mountains, hardly suffice for the consumption; it
ought, however, to be mentioned, that government makes
use of every means by which knowledge can be diffused
among the people, and the Bavarians may ere long be
sensible that the elements of their prosperity depend on
the cultivation of their country.

Domestic
animals.

The rearing of cattle forms, after agriculture, the principal source of territorial wealth; the meadows that extend along the banks of rivers are well adapted for this purpose. It may be remarked, that in those districts, where agriculture has arrived at a certain degree of perfection, care has been taken to improve the different breeds. Thus it appears that one branch of industry cannot be established without creating another; the plan of artificial irrigation practised with so much success, not only in the circle of Rezat, but in the upper and lower Maine, has produced verdant and luxuriant meadows, in which numerous flocks and herds are fattened. It must be admitted that the breed of cattle might be still much improved, for it is obvious that little attention has hitherto been bestowed by the Bavarians on the form and proportions of these animals. If the oxen on the declivities of the Alps rival in symmetry any in the Swiss Cantons, it is equally true that the produce of the dairy, and the rearing of cattle make up the chief wealth of the people in the lofty country that extends to the south of Munich. Many goats are fed in the same districts and in most of the mountains which bound the kingdom.

Hogs.

The hog is fattened in almost every part of Bavaria, and in many places, the flesh of that animal forms the principal sustenance of the people.

Horses.

The same remarks that were made concerning the Bavarian oxen, are still more applicable to the horses, the inhabitants appear to have been perhaps more careless in improving the breed of that useful animal. The number

of horses was considerably diminished during the last wars, and it has not been sufficiently increased since the peace. BOOK
CXXIII. Although horses are seldom used for agricultural purposes, it must nevertheless be confessed that government, by neglecting to multiply and improve them, renders itself in the event of a war, dependent on foreign powers.

The landed proprietors pay great attention to their sheep; the native breed has been crossed with the Merinos, other experiments have been conducted with much sagacity and corresponding success. If there be a greater demand for the cloth and woollen manufactures in Bavaria, it must be attributed to these causes.

The peasants in some districts have found it profitable Bees. to carry on a trade in honey, but that branch of rural economy was more flourishing than at present, although the use of wax has now become more common. The circles of the Rhenish and the upper Danube are most favourable for bees. It may, on the whole, be concluded that the Bavarians have been surpassed by the inhabitants of other countries in two important branches of rural industry, in rearing cattle and other domestic animals, and in their method of husbandry. But it is rather to the quality than quantity of live stock that their attention ought to be directed, for it appears from a statistical work published a few years ago, that the proportion of cattle to surface was as one for every five acres of land. What has been stated concerning the system of agriculture may now be repeated; in both cases the ignorance and even superstition of the country people are the principal obstacles to improvement. So long as the peasants and farmers, neglecting the best means of curing or arresting the progress of contagious disorders among the lower animals, lead their diseased flocks to distant pilgrimages, it is vain to expect any amendment in whatever appertains to rural economy.^a

^a More than eighteen thousand landed proprietors, farmers and peasants, went on a pilgrimage with their flocks to Greisbach in 1820, nearly thirty thousand performed the same journey in the following year. See the work

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Horticulture.

The art of gardening has made some advances of late years; at least a considerable portion of ground has been laid out in nurseries and flower gardens, but it ought not to be inferred that horticulture has arrived at the same degree of perfection which it has attained in other countries. The culture of vegetables and culinary plants is principally confined to the neighbourhood of large towns.

Wines.

It has already been observed that the vine is cultivated in the circles of the Rezat and the lower Maine. The wines of Franconia are produced in the last department, and the best vineyards are those on the banks of the Leiste not far from Steinberg, in the vicinity of Saleck and Wurtzburg. The wines next to them in repute are those of Calmuth, Eiweilstadt, Sommerach and Eschendorf, and also those produced from the vineyards on the lake of Constance. It may be remarked that the culture of the vine is well understood in Bavaria.

**Woods and
Forests.**

The woods and forests are committed to the Bavarian government, and the care of them furnishes employment to several thousand individuals. The most ordinary trees are the oak and the beech; the first grows luxuriantly, and the second which is much more common, reaches in some places to the height of more than a hundred feet. The birch, the ash and several coniferous trees have been planted. The most extensive forests in Bavaria are situated on the Spessart, the Rhœne-Gebirge, Zwiesler, Mitten, Kulwald, Retzer, Lorenz and in the neighbourhood of Kempten. Their superficial extent has been calculated to amount to five millions six hundred and fifty-nine thousand acres. It is supposed that they occupy a twenty-ninth part of all the land in the kingdom, which gives the proportion of nearly eight acres for every family.*

The ignorance of the country people is not the only

entitled Weber den Zustand des Koenigreichs Baiern, by M. Rudhart, director of the government of Ratisbon, 1825.

* See the work of M. Rudhart;—Über den Zustand des Koenigreichs Baiern.

barrier to the measures contemplated by government for advancing the welfare of the state. The plans proposed by government have been counteracted by different feudal institutions, tithes, baronial rights, the privilege of hunting, and statute labour exacted from the peasantry. These and other customs equally antiquated, have hitherto been maintained by those who profit by them. It is in vain that every man has been permitted by a recent law to use his property as he pleases, so long as feudal burdens continue, so long as the greater portion of the inhabitants are degraded by servile offices, land must be almost an illusory possession. The freedom of agriculture has been proclaimed in vain : if the woods are under the management of persons appointed by the government, if the culture of the vine is subject to regulations that emanate from the same quarter, if the nobles are permitted to examine whether the lands of the other proprietors are well or ill cultivated, and to propose alterations, agriculture is still in its infancy.

Many changes must be introduced before the country can be improved ; the land must be more equally divided ; waste lands and part of the forests, for they are too extensive, must be granted to those who undertake to bring them into cultivation ; nay, the new proprietors must be exempt from every tax and contribution for a greater or less period according to circumstances. Many of the pastures are too poor to be of much use in fattening cattle, premiums might therefore be given to the proprietors that are willing to cultivate them. The right of pasturing on private property may with advantage be abolished. It might be wished that the inhabitants would provide the best sort of food for their cattle, and prevent them from being exposed day and night to the inclemency of the weather. The woods in the fertile meadows are so much waste land, but the nobles will not suffer them to be cut, because they serve to shelter game. It was unwise in the legislature to fix the *minimum* of landed property that a

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man can possess; it was still more so to hinder any one from building a house on his land, if it does not amount to a certain number of acres. It is obvious that while these and other laws are enforced, the country can never be in such a state of prosperity as it might be expected to attain, considering the industry of the inhabitants and the nature of the soil.^p

Quarries
and Mines.

Many quarries containing different kinds of stone, are worked in the country; the other mineral substances are coal, lead and copper, but all these are of little value, if compared with the products of the salt and iron mines. The most abundant saline springs are situated in the circle of the Isar near Reichenhall, Traunstein and Rosenheim; they yield annually about four hundred thousand quintals of salt; the mine at Berschtesgaden furnishes about a hundred and fifty thousand, another near Orb twenty-four thousand, and a third at Kissingen, upwards of sixteen thousand; but in order to supply the wants of the population, government in consequence of a special treaty receives every year from Hall two hundred and sixty thousand hundredweights of salt, which, after the necessary process of purification, is reduced to a hundred and ninety thousand.

Iron.

The iron mines in the territory of Amberg yield from forty to fifty thousand hundredweights; those in the circle of the Upper Maine from eighty to ninety thousand, and others in the circle of the Isar on the heights of Kressen, about a hundred and twenty thousand; the produce of all the mines in other parts of the country may be equal to thirty thousand, so that the whole produce throughout the kingdom amounts to three hundred thousand quintals. The circle of the Upper Maine is the only one in Bavaria Proper in which coal is worked, but the quantity obtained does not exceed 300,000 quintals or not

^p See the letter addressed to the provincial assembly on the laws relative to agriculture, by M. de Hazzi.

more than a third of what is extracted from the circle of BOOK CXXIII.
the Rhine.

Different branches of industry are still in a less advanced state than agriculture; there are however sixteen iron works, several wire manufactures, and two of fire arms. The moderate degree of perfection to which some of the arts have attained, has been partly the effect of rewards and encouragements given by government. Coarse linen can only be manufactured in the country, all the fine linens are imported. The same may be said of woollen stuffs and different kinds of cloth, they form a considerable branch of importation. Cottons and hats are manufactured in different parts of Bavaria. Industry.

It may be allowed that in some articles, the Bavarians have acquired a decided superiority over their neighbours; thus the different kinds of leather which they manufacture, are exported, and Saxony is supplied with paper from the same country. The musical, surgical and mathematical instruments made at Munich, are sold in many parts of Germany, and the playing cards of Nuremberg are exported into different countries in Europe and America. The glass, porcelain and earthen works in the kingdom, suffice for the supply of the inhabitants. The number of cambric and lace manufactures is too insignificant to require notice. It ought to be mentioned that the administration, anxious to correct gradually all the abuses connected with the ancient government, encouraged industry by abolishing in 1827 the offices of wardens and masters in the different corporations.

It follows from what has been already said that the commerce of Bavaria cannot be very important. Commerce. Fortunately for the country, its situation enables the inhabitants to communicate with different states, and by this means puts them in possession of a considerable carrying trade.

There is only one navigable canal in the kingdom, and it serves to unite the Rhine with the plains of Franconia. Another canal, which was begun by Charlemagne, in order to form a communication between the Rhine and the

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Danube, and which has since been recommenced at different times, is not likely to be ever finished. Commercial transactions are facilitated by the course of the principal rivers, such as the Danube, the Rhine, the Maine, the Regnitz, the Inn and the Salzach, by numerous and well kept roads, that extended in 1812 to the distance of more than a thousand and eighty German miles, or nearly four thousand three hundred and ten English miles, and lastly by the posts which although expensive, are very expeditious.

Corn trade. The corn trade was in a flourishing state a few years ago, it has since been destroyed by the restrictions imposed on it by government. It may excite surprise that so few statesmen are acquainted with the most elementary truths of political economy.* It is not wonderful that the vulgar confound corn merchants with forestallers, eager only to occasion famine or to enrich themselves at the expense of the people, but it is painful to confess that the same prejudices are common to them with men called to the government of kingdoms. It might almost be inferred that Smith, Condillac, Say and other great economists had written in vain, if such men are ignorant that products of every kind belong to commerce, and that commerce must be free in order to be advantageous to the community.

The Bavarian ministers have at last begun to encourage inland navigation, vessels constructed at the expense of the state, now sail on the Danube; the example of government will without doubt be imitated by capitalists; the Isar and the Maine covered with vessels of the same sort, or with steam boats, may facilitate the transport of agricultural products, which under a better system might form the principal wealth of the country.^p

Population. Less accurate information has been obtained concerning the population of Bavaria, than any other state in Germany; it appears however that a census was made in

^p See Wochenblatt des Lundw. Vereins in Baiern, 1823.

1822, and according to it, the number of inhabitants amounted to 3,566,300. M. Hassel cannot be supposed BOOK
CXXIII. ignorant of that census, still in his statistical tables of the same year, he estimates the population at 3,630,800.^q An author, well known for his accuracy, has concluded from new data and other calculations that the number in 1827 was equal to 3,940,000.^r If these different results be correct, the population in Bavaria must increase in a very rapid progression, for the difference in five years exceeds 350,000 individuals.

The inhabitants in the circles of the Rhine are included in the numbers that have been now stated; but the population of Bavaria proper, amounted probably in 1827 to 3,510,000 individuals, and at least four-fifths of them were catholics. Religion.

The tables at the end of this chapter are so full as to render further details unnecessary: one observation may however be made, and it is that no civil restrictions on account of religion, are imposed on the people in Bavaria. Catholics, calvinists and lutherans enjoy the same rights; government never interferes in questions connected with the forms of worship or the religious opinions of the different sects. According to the last concordate, the kingdom is divided into two archbishopricks, the one at Munich, the other at Bamberg, and into six diocesses, those of Passau, Ratisbon, Augsburg, and the suffragan diocesses of Eichstedt, Wurtzburg and Speyer. The protestants acknowledge the general consistory at Munich, as their highest ecclesiastical court; and the Israelites are under the authority of their rabbis, whose nomination must be approved by government.

The Bavarians have retained some characteristic traits Inhabitants. of the different people from whom they are descended. The inhabitants of ancient Swabia are sober, but ignorant and superstitious; the Franks or the people of

^q Statistischer Umriss der sämmtlichen Europäischen, etc., 1823.

^r Balance politique du globe, M. Adrian Balbi.

BOOK CXXIII. ancient Franconia, are lively, cunning and enterprising; the Bavarians proper, sprung from a mixed race—the *Vindelici* and the *Boii*, are grave, loyal, faithful to their engagements, constant in their affections, attached to the ceremonies rather than the duties of religion, ready to make any sacrifice, if the priest commands it in the name of the Divinity.

The state of society is not so unexceptionable as might be imagined; the vices in the great towns are but too evident, they may be easily accounted for; but the number of natural children in the rural and mountainous districts, announces a degree of corruption, that may perhaps be chiefly attributed to the ignorance of the inhabitants.

Education. Government convinced of that important truth, has at length made some attempts to provide for the instruction of the people. A school has been established in every parish; the time may come when there will be one in every village, when the inhabitants of the hamlets may participate in the benefits of education. The higher orders of society possess greater advantages in this respect; lyceums, colleges and universities have been instituted in several towns, but their number is not sufficient for the wants of the middling classes, which in Bavaria may rank

- among the most enlightened in Europe.

Constitution. What has been said of the character and education of the Bavarians, leads us naturally to consider their government, for it is found that knowledge may be most easily diffused among the people under constitutional governments. According to the act passed on the twenty-sixth of May 1818, Bavaria forms an indivisible kingdom; the domains of the state cannot be alienated, the crown is hereditary, and the person of the king inviolable. There is no civil list, the king determines the expenses of his household, and the princes receive for their appanage a sum that has not hitherto exceeded 150,000 florins. The revenue of the queen mother has been fixed at two hundred thousand, and each princess receives a hundred thousand for her dowry.

The general assembly of the states is made up of two chambers. The princes of the royal family, the great officers of state, the two archbishops, some of the nobles, a bishop nominated by the king, and the president of the protestant consistory, are members of the upper chamber. The king has it besides in his power to appoint hereditary members or members for life; the number of the latter cannot exceed a third of the former. The chamber of representatives consists of a hundred and fifteen deputies; fourteen are chosen by the nobles, as many by the clergy, twenty-eight by the burgesses, and fifty-six by the landed proprietors; the universities appoint the remaining three, who must belong to the catholic, lutheran or calvinistic communions, they cannot be elected before the age of thirty. The proportion between the number of representatives to families, was supposed to be in the ratio of one to seven thousand: the members are chosen every six years. The executive power is in the hands of the king, and the ministry consists of five members. According to the fundamental law of the constitution, no one can be imprisoned or condemned but by the sentence of a judge, all the citizens are eligible to the different offices of state, and all are obliged to enter the military service.*

It may be superfluous to make any remarks on the merits or imperfections of the constitution, since at the time it was enacted, the necessity of some modifications was acknowledged. While some writers hailed it as the dawn of freedom in Bavaria, others considered it very imperfect. "The Bavarians," says M. Hazzi,† "can derive but little advantage from the abolition of personal slavery, while a magistrate, in the plenitude of his authority or caprice, can inflict corporal punishment on the burgesses and peasants, and while an officer can degrade his soldiers in the same man-

* See Hassel's geography.

† See his work entitled *Ueber die Standpunkte der Baierischen Verfassungsurkunde* von, 1818. See also the *Bulletin Universel des Sciences et de l' Industrie*, section des sciences géographiques. First Part, 1825.

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ner. The condition of the husbandmen can never be improved, so long as labour, different services and every sort of feudal burden are imposed on them. It is of little use that a vague law entitles any individual to purchase exemption from such hardships, since there is no law by which the purchase-money has been fixed. Religious liberty has been declared a fundamental principle of the constitution, but the Mennonites, Moravians, Anabaptists, Jews; all those, in short, who are neither catholics, calvinists nor lutherans, are deprived of political privileges. A Bavarian is not permitted to migrate without the consent of government, and then it must be to one of the confederated states, if he does so of his own accord his property may be confiscated."

**Orders of
knighthood.**

The king is great master of five orders of knighthood; they are the order of Saint Hubert, those of Saint George and Saint Michael, the military order of Max-Joseph, and the civil order of Merit.

Army.

The Bavarian army corresponds with the rank which the state holds in the Germanic confederation. The conscription still exists, and the military force in the kingdom consists of fifty-four thousand men, and a numerous reserve. The contingent to the confederation has been fixed at thirty-five thousand; the period of military service is limited to five years. The troops for the protection of the country are trained after the manner of the French gendarmes. A military establishment so disproportionate to the number of inhabitants, can only be maintained during war by measures so severe as might appear almost insupportable. Every strong man must enter the army, either into the active service or the reserve.

Finance.

The revenue of Bavaria may amount to 35,000,000 florins, and the national debt to 110,000,000.^u These results are not satisfactory, but what has been lately gained by economy and retrenchments not only in the expenditure of the state but of the court, cannot fail to improve

^u See for the budget of 1820, *Allgem. Justiz Kamer*, &c. 1825.

the finances of the kingdom. The promises of government, which have been partially realized, may be considered a pledge that others made from the throne at the opening of the session in 1828 will also be fulfilled. The sovereign has publicly declared his intention to establish provincial councils, to render the administration of justice less expensive, to divide the taxes and imposts more uniformly, to enter into commercial treaties with neighbouring nations, to inform the public through the journals of the debates and proceedings in the different courts, and lastly, to introduce a new penal code adapted to the present wants of society. Such resolutions are the best guarantee of the future prosperity of the kingdom.

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Bavaria is divided into eight circles, namely, those of the Isar, the Lower Danube, the Regen, the Upper Maine, the Rezat, the Upper Danube, the Lower Maine and the Rhine. The last circle shall be described separately, it forms no part of Bavaria Proper. The capital of the Isar or the Iser, is also the capital of the kingdom.

Divisions.

Munich rises on an extensive plain between the heights on the Isar and the Galgen. It may occupy nearly the same extent of ground as Vienna, if the suburbs of the last town be not taken into account. It has been considered one of the finest cities in Germany, it stands on the Isar, at the height of more than nineteen hundred feet above the level of the sea. It cannot be called a regularly built town, modern houses are placed near edifices which have stood for more than four hundred years; but it must be admitted however that several streets are straight, broad and well paved. The number of houses amounts to three thousand one hundred and eighty, and the population to sixty-five thousand individuals. The squares or places as the inhabitants call them, contribute chiefly to the embellishment of the town; the most remarkable are those of Max-Joseph, Anger, Arms and Maximilian. The public buildings are the palaces of Max and William, the house in which the chambers meet, another that serves as a residence for the minister of the interior, the town-house,

Munich.

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the new mint, the two principal theatres, and the academy of sciences, formerly the college of the Jesuits, the finest of any that the order possessed in Europe.

Royal palace.

The royal palace may be styled a model of architecture; it was a common saying in former times, owing perhaps to the magnificence, as well as the great size of the interior, that all the kings in Christendom might reside in the palace at Munich. Many valuable curiosities are to be seen in the court chapel; among others a painting by Michael Angelo, the small altar at which Mary Stuart performed her devotions, when in confinement, a reliquary adorned with ancient cameos, a pearl of the greatest beauty, known in Europe by the name of the palatine pearl, and lastly a piece of native gold, weighing more than twenty-two pounds. There are several collections in the royal palace, one of a hundred and thirty miniatures, which have been supposed to be worth more than L.30,000; it may be added too that some paintings by the greatest masters are to be seen in the Maximilian gallery.

It may be sufficient to mention one of the twenty-two churches, that of St. Mary, formerly *Frauen-Kirche* or the church of women; not fewer than thirty altars are contained in it; its finest ornaments are several valuable paintings and a mausoleum of the emperor Lewis of Bavaria. The two turrets of the same building rise to the height of three hundred and thirty feet above the ground; it may be easily inferred that they command an extensive view, hence most strangers who visit the town, ascend them.

Public collections.

The public collections of Munich are highly valuable; more than thirteen hundred paintings by celebrated masters are contained in the royal academy, and there is a fine collection of drawings and mosaics in the ancient convent of the Theatines. The number of volumes in the royal library exceeds four hundred thousand, and amongst them are eight thousand five hundred manuscripts, and more than twenty thousand volumes, published when the art of printing was still in its infancy. One of them is a bible by

Guttenberg Faust, printed in the year 1450. More than a hundred thousand Greek and Roman gold coins form part of a collection of medals; the museum of natural history, the observatory, the schools of chemistry and anatomy contain whatever is useful in such institutions.

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A royal institute consists of different schools, one of philosophy, another of medicine and surgery; a third of the veterinary art, and a fourth, which is set apart for the poor students from all the towns in the kingdom. The other public seminaries are those for the cadets and pages of the king, the Maximilian boarding schools for the daughters of the nobles, and different elementary and gratuitous schools.

Places of
education.

It might be easy to enumerate several establishments for the relief of the indigent, hospitals for the old of both sexes, others for orphans, foundlings and lunatics. It may be remarked too that most of these establishments were founded by pious and philanthropic inhabitants of the town; some have existed for more than four hundred years, and since that period, virtuous citizens, guided by the purest philanthropy, have used their utmost efforts to mitigate wretchedness and misfortune, without being in any way assisted or encouraged by government. Now, that their example is followed by the state, the means of relief are greater, the repression of mendicity more effectual; indeed travellers have declared that fewer mendicants are to be seen in Munich than in any other town of the same size in Germany. It rarely happens that the children of the lower orders accustom themselves early to indolence, by depending for a subsistence on the alms, which their importunity extorts. The children, who are found begging in the towns or in the country, are removed from that degrading state,—the source of so many vices—and educated at the public expense, until they are able to support themselves by their labour.

Charitable
institutions.

Houses of correction have been built for the confinement of vagrants; in short, it may be sufficient to termi-

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nate the account of the charitable institutions in the capital, by stating that the plan proposed by Count Rumford, an individual to whom humanity is so much indebted, has been realized at Munich. Food is gratuitously provided to six hundred persons, in an edifice erected for the purpose. A secret passage leads to the interior of the building; those who wish to conceal their poverty from their fellow-citizens enter it, and receive, without being seen, a sufficient quantity of wholesome provisions. It has been affirmed that respectable individuals, victims to the vicissitudes of fortune, are thus better enabled to endure the hardships of poverty.

Academies. The two most celebrated academies at Munich, are those of the arts and sciences. The latter is divided into three classes, the first or that of philology and philosophy, consists of six members; the second or the physical and mathematical is made up of thirteen, and the historical of eight. Every class has its secretary and honorary members. The king is the patron, and there is besides a general secretary of the whole academy. A director, a secretary, eight ordinary, thirty honorary and forty corresponding members form the academy of arts.

Trade. The residence of the court at Munich is the means of furnishing employment to many inhabitants; others are provided for by government offices. The manufactures of the town, are cloth, leather, hardware goods, jewellery and tapestry, which has been considered little inferior to that of Gobelins. Although there are several fairs every year, and corn markets every week, the trade of Munich has not risen into much importance. The castle of Nymphenburg, a royal residence at a league to the north-west of the capital, is built after the model of the one at Versailles, and the grounds are laid out with great taste.

Landshut. Landshut on the Isar, is after Munich, the finest town in Bavaria; its name signifies the hat of the country; and it was in the feudal times a place of protection for the people against the exactions of the barons. It stands on the declivity of a hill, which commands the castle of Trau.

nitz, built by the ancient dukes of Bavaria, and since BOOK
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changed into an observatory to which a botanical garden has been attached. The finest buildings in Landshut, are the university, attended by six or seven hundred students, the exchequer, the townhouse and St. Martin's church, of which the steeple rises about four hundred and twenty feet above the ground. The places of charity are two hospitals and two poor houses.

The public library consists of a hundred thousand vo-
lumes. A collection of coins and medals, another of ma-
thematical and philosophical instruments, and a museum
of mineralogy belong to the university. A theatre of
anatomy, as well as a school of medicine and surgery are
open to those who study the medical profession. Library,
Collections,
&c.

The town possesses little or no trade; there are not
more than five manufactories, and none of them are of any
consequence. It was probably on that account that go-
vernment determined to transfer the university from In-
golstadt to Landshut. The population does not exceed
eight thousand five hundred inhabitants. Trade, po-
pulation.

Freysing, situated on the Isar, at an equal distance from
Munich and Landshut, contains a castle, a fine cathe-
dral, a normal school, and an institution for the deaf and
dumb; it is peopled by three thousand six hundred in-
dividuals.

It is only necessary to mention those towns which are
worthy of notice from their importance, the recollections
connected with them, or the monuments they contain. It
ought to be remarked that Bavaria differs from the petty
principalities that have been described, in as much as it
contains several large and flourishing cities; as to the
towns of two or three thousand inhabitants, it may be
best to add a list of them with their population to the
statistical tables at the end of the chapter.

The principal places in the circle of the Isar have been
already mentioned, some account shall now be given of
the other departments. Passau Passau.
the chief town in the
circle of the lower Danube, is situated in a very romantic

BOOK CXXIII. country at the confluence of the IIs, the Inn and the Danube. It is in all probability the most ancient city in Bavaria; it consists of four quarters, Passau or the old town, Instadt on the right bank of the Inn, Ilstadt on the right bank of the IIs, and the suburbs of Anger, defended by the castles of Oberhaus and Unterhaus, and also by eight forts, formerly known by the names of eight French generals. The suburbs of Instadt and Ilstadt communicate with the town by bridges. The principal buildings in Passau are an archiepiscopal palace, a large cathedral and three parish churches, one of which, St. Mary of the Capuchins, was famous for its miracles. It has besides two public schools, a gymnasium, an infirmary, an orphan hospital and five others.

Trade, population.

Although advantageously situated for commerce, it possesses an inconsiderable trade, which consists in silk, wine and grain. The town is on the whole well built, and the population, including that in the different suburbs, amounts to ten thousand five hundred inhabitants. Passau was the place where Charles the Fifth, and Maurice of Saxony concluded a treaty, by which the Reformation was confirmed in Germany.* The rural palaces of Freudenheim, Læwenhof and Rabengut are situated in the neighbourhood.

Fresh water pearls.

Of the many pearl fisheries on the IIs, some are not far from Passau; these pearls are produced by a fresh water muscle, the *Mytullus margaritefer* of Linnæus. The animal having no means of resistance, says the Swedish naturalist, forms the pearls to defend itself against the attacks of a formidable enemy; an aquatic worm perforates its shell and feeds on it; the only way by which it can escape, after an opening has been made, is by filling it by a calcareous secretion from its body. If the secretion be too great, it forms a tubercle that may be easily detached from the shell. The finest pearls are round and of a white colour.

Straubing. Straubing, a town of eight thousand inhabitants, is ad-

* See Sleidan's history of the Reformation.

advantageously situated on a height near the banks of the Danube. It was the *Castra Augusta* of the Romans; it carries on at present a considerable trade in earthen ware; its trutibles are exported into different countries. The principal edifices are a castle, seven churches, one of them with a steeple two hundred and forty feet in height, four hospitals and a townhouse. The places of education are a gymnasium and several schools. The fine abbey of Ober-Altaich, famous for its valuable library, is situated in the vicinity.

The burgh of Bodanmais is known to mineralogists from the minerals collected in the neighbourhood, and to landscape painters from the cataraets on the Riss and the Mosbach. The importance of the place depends on its mines and vitriol works; the latter furnish every year a supply of nearly two thousand quintals.

Ratisbon, the chief town in the circle of Regen, was formerly the capital of Bavaria, and the residence of the ancient German kings of the Carlovingian race. Having been erected into a free and imperial city by the emperor Frederick the First, it was afterwards restored to Bavaria in the year 1486. It became a second time independent in 1502, and continued so until the year 1803. Lastly, when the great duchy of Frankfort was founded, it and its territory were included in the dominions of Bavaria. The town had been the seat of the imperial diets from the year 1662 to that period. Many of the houses were built with wood, and it was seven times almost reduced to ashes between the years 891 and 1642. Two ecclesiastics were burnt at Ratisbon in 1418, because they maintained that John Huss had been unjustly condemned to death by the council of Constance. The townsmen recollected, when the greater part of them embraced the Augsburg confession in 1542, that these two clergymen had been the victims of intolerance and fanaticism. A famous battle between the French and the Austrians, which lasted five days, and in which Napoleon received a slight wound on the heel, was fought under its walls in 1809. A great part of the town was on that

BOOK occasion destroyed; a hundred and thirty-four houses
CXXIII. were consumed, and the loss sustained is said to have amounted to one million five hundred thousand florins.

**Popula-
tion, &c.**

The same town is called Regensburg by the Germans; it contains 26,000 inhabitants, it is encompassed with walls, but not defended with fortifications. There are not fewer than twenty-eight churches, the cathedral or the finest was finished in 1400. It is unnecessary to mention the hospitals and different seminaries for the education of youth. The museums and collections are worthy of an important town; it possesses a valuable gallery of paintings, and not less valuable libraries. The principal buildings are the castle, the townhouse where the Germanic diets assembled, and a bridge of fifteen arches across the Danube, a thousand and ninety-one feet in length.

**Kepler's
monument.**

A monument has been erected in honour of Kepler, who died in the town. It seems as if the contending armies had spared this tribute to the memory of the man, who determined the revolutions and orbits of the heavenly bodies; it was finished in 1808, and received no injury in the following year, during the engagement by which Ratisbon was almost destroyed. The streets are narrow and crooked, but clean and well paved. The houses are very high, and built in the German style. The manufactures are neither numerous nor important; vessels are built for the navigation of the river, and the principal trade consists in the transport of goods.

**Don Juan
of Austria.**

Ratisbon was the birth place of Don Juan of Austria, the natural son of Charles the Fifth, and perhaps the most extraordinary general that flourished in the sixteenth century; he gained the battle of Lepanto, kept the Netherlands under the dominion of Spain, and was at last poisoned by his brother, that suspicious tyrant Philip the Second, who feared that he might become sovereign of Flanders.

Stadt-am-Hoff or the town of the court may be considered a suburbs of Ratisbon, as it is only separated from it by a bridge. It was reduced to ashes in 1809, but it has since

been rebuilt and improved; the population amounts to fifteen hundred inhabitants. BOOK
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Amberg is situated about twelve leagues to the north of Ratisbon, and watered by the Vils, a river that throws itself into the Nab. It is surrounded with walls, and flanked by seventy turrets; the streets are straight, broad and well built. The public buildings are the royal castle, the college, the arsenal and townhouse,—a Gothic edifice. It contains ten churches, six hospitals, an infirmary, several seminaries, a normal school and eight thousand inhabitants. Sixty workmen are employed in making arms, and more than five thousand four hundred hundredweights of iron are obtained every year from the mines in the vicinity. The Vils is navigable for the small vessels that descend towards the Danube. Thus, the facility of communication with Ratisbon and other towns, its manufactures, cotton stuffs, tobacco, porcelain and earthen ware render Amberg a place of considerable trade. It was on the plains which surround the town, that the archduke Charles compelled the French army under General Jourdan to retreat to the Rhine in 1796.

Ingolstadt on the right bank of the Danube, was formerly an important town in Bavaria; but its population at present is not, according to Hassel, greater than that of Amberg; its fortifications were destroyed in 1800. A Latin school has been opened since the university was transferred to Landshut. Ingolstadt.

Abensberg on the right bank of the same river, was the ancient *Abusina*, a city of the *Vendelici*; several Roman antiquities are still found near its walls. Although a small place of twelve hundred inhabitants, it has been encompassed with walls, which are flanked with thirty-two round and eight square turrets. It was formerly the residence of the counts of Abensberg, and a castle that belonged to them, may still be seen in the town. Abensberg.

Eichsteidt, a walled town on the banks of the Altmühl, is situated in a narrow but agreeable valley. There are four suburbs, three principal squares and as many large Eichsteidt.

BOOK streets; it was the chief town in the principality, that was
CXXIII. ceded under the sovereignty of Bavaria to Eugene Beauharnois. The castle may be considered the finest edifice; next to it are the church of Walpurg, and the cathedral, where the tomb of Wilibald the martyr was erected; these two churches and four others of a smaller size belong exclusively to the catholics. The town possesses a gymnasium, different schools, a public library and several collections; it is peopled by more than eight thousand inhabitants. The land in the neighbourhood of Eichsteidt is fruitful, and produces corn, hops, lint and fruits; few cattle are reared, but the country abounds with game, and the rivers are well stocked with fish. Iron mines, marble and other quarries are worked on the heights.

Baireuth.

Baireuth, the metropolis of the circle of the upper Maine, is built on the banks of that river, in a pleasant valley, formed by branches of the Fichtel-Gebirge. The elevation of the town may be about six hundred and forty feet above the level of the sea. The streets are broad, regular and well paved; they are surrounded with ancient walls and three suburbs, one of which is the small town of St. George. The finest buildings are the old castle of Sophienburg, and the new palace. Although the population consists of fourteen thousand inhabitants, there are not more than a thousand catholics; the latter have their church, and the Jews their synagogue. Baireuth contains several hospitals, a gymnasium, a theatre and different manufactories.

Bamberg.

Bamberg, a town watered by the Reignitz, has been incorrectly considered the ancient *Bergium*, a place mentioned by Ptolemy; it is certain that Bamberg was not built long before the tenth century; it was the residence of the counts of the same name. The population amounts to nearly thirty thousand souls; in point of situation and architectural beauty, it may vie with any other town in Bavaria. The houses are built of free stone; it is divided into three parts by two fine bridges; and the highest quarter rises majestically in the form of an amphitheatre crowned by

several hills. The castle of Petersberg has been much admired; among the other buildings, may be mentioned a fine church, that contains the ashes of the emperor Henry the Second and Cunegonde his wife, twenty three other churches, fifteen chapels, three hospitals, an infirmary and a house of correction—a very large edifice.

A public library, a collection of natural history, and the archives of the country are deposited in the castle of Petersberg. Bamberg offers a singular contrast with Bai-reuth, in as much as it does not contain a thousand protestants. The places of education are numerous; the ly-ceum is attended by fifty pupils, the gymnasium by two hundred and fourteen; while the number of masters is not less than six. There are besides an ecclesiastical seminary, a normal school for thirty or forty pupils, and one of medicine, surgery and midwifery. Bamberg was the birth place of Camerarius the philologist. Although it possesses no great commerce, there are about fourteen hundred tradesmen of different kinds, eleven hundred workmen, three hundred apprentices, ten booksellers, four labora-tories and fifty-six breweries.

a Hoff, at a short distance from the eastern frontier of the kingdom, is watered by the Saale; it contains several schools, a rich hospital, a library and eight thousand inhabitants. Kulmbach, a pleasant town in the same depart-ment is surrounded with walls, and situated on the banks of the White Maine. The streets are irregular but well paved, and the market place is remarkable for its size. Like every other town of any consequence in the circle, it contains a sufficient number of hospitals and charitable in-stitutions. The population amounts to little more than four thousand five hundred inhabitants. Plassenburg at no great distance from the last town, stands between two lofty mountains; it has been mentioned on account of its fortress, now a state prison, and the station of a good gar-ison.

Some account may be given of Gailenreuth, a village in the same circle, situated on the west bank of the Wiesent, fossil bones.

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in the valley of the Reignitz ; and famous for its natural caverns, many of which are filled with fossil bones, that have excited in later times the attention of naturalists. The largest of these cavities lies in a vertical rock, and bears the same name as the village ; the entrance may be about seven feet in height, the length of the cave nearly eighty ; it communicates by an aperture not more than two feet high, with a second cavity nearly a hundred and thirty feet long, and forty broad. The height of the second cave near the aperture is about eighteen feet, but it descends gradually until it becomes so low, as five. A passage at the opposite extremity communicates with several others, which lead to a third cavern about thirty feet in diameter, and five or six in height ; the floor of this hall appears to be wholly crusted with the teeth and jaw bones of different animals. There is a cavity at its extremity to which one can descend by a ladder, and pass from it to a vault fifteen feet in diameter, and thirty in height ; it communicates with a chamber covered with bones. A natural arcade below it leads to another cavern more than forty feet from the ground to the roof. This chamber terminates in a cavity or pit about eighteen or twenty feet in depth, and a passage from it communicates with a cave more than forty feet in height, and almost filled with bones. Passages lead from the last cave to one about twenty-five feet long and twelve broad, to another twenty feet high, and lastly to a third eighty feet in breadth and twenty-four in height ; it contains more bones than any of the rest. But this is not the end of the labyrinth, the stranger has to advance to the sixth and last cavern. All these subterranean chambers form a figure not unlike a semicircle. The fissures that are perceived in the calcareous rock, may perhaps be passages to other caverns ; thus, it was found in 1784, that one of these fissures communicated with a chamber filled with the bones of hyenas and lions. It has been remarked that the cleft was much too narrow for an entrance to these animals. The chamber terminates in a sort

of arcade, and I observed in it, says M. Cuvier, an incredible number of bones and skulls. It has been discovered that the animals of which these are the remains, were bears, hyenas, tigers, wolves, foxes, gluttons, polecats and others of a different nature, such as several kinds of deer. But the carnivorous animals are in so great a proportion, that out of a hundred bones, it is probable three belong to hyenas, five to wolves or foxes, two to tigers, three to gluttons and eighty-seven to bears.

All these animals, different in their figure and dimensions from those of the present day, attest the past existence of a former world. If it be wished to determine why the bones of so many animals are collected in these places; it may be supposed either that they were the dens of wild animals that brought their prey into them; or more probably that an enormous number of carnivorous animals, with others of a different class, were accumulated in the cavities by an irruption of the waters.

More manufacturing and trading towns are situated in the circle of the Rezat than in any other in Bavaria. Ansbach or the metropolis, which was formerly called Onolzbach, is now more generally known by the name of Ansbach. There are eighteen public buildings, and the town is surrounded with walls. The principal edifices are the castle and chancery. The population amounts to seventeen thousand inhabitants, and the number of catholics does not exceed three hundred. The places of instruction are a gymnasium and several elementary schools. Ansbach is not a town of much trade, the manufactures are leather, linen and woollen stuffs.

Erlangen or *Christian Erlangen* on the Reignitz, is enclosed by walls, and divided into the old and new town; the streets are large and regular. It possesses, besides the only protestant university in the kingdom; many seminaries in which different branches of education are taught. The imperial academy of natural history was founded in

BOOK the year 1666, the other institutions of the same sort are
CXXIII. a physical society, another of medicine, and a third of agriculture and rural economy. It has excited surprise that so many useful institutions are contained in a town of twelve thousand inhabitants.

Fürth. The trade and manufactures of Erlangen are of considerable importance, but in that respect it is inferior to Fürth, a well built town on the same river. The Jews form about the fourth part of the population, which may be equal to sixteen thousand eight hundred individuals. They keep up at their own expense a separate tribunal, an university, two printing presses, three schools, an hospital and four synagogues; such facts form the best answers that can be made to those who maintain that the Jews can never become good or useful citizens; indeed in many places where the Jews participate in the rights of citizens, they may bear a comparison with the Christians who despise them. Fürth is one of the most industrious towns in Bavaria; it carries on a great trade in glass.

Nurenberg. Nurenberg or Nurnberg stands in the middle of a fruitful though sandy plain, and the Peignitz divides it into two parts. Surrounded with an outer and an inner wall, which render it not unlike two towns, turrets and bastions are built on both its enclosures. The streets are irregular, but broad and well paved; although the old castle cannot at present be called a fort, still it and almost all the other buildings in Nurenberg, may recal the residence of the princes or barons who flourished in feudal times, and whose power depended on the weakness of their neighbours. The paintings that cover the outer walls of many houses in Nurenberg give it a singular aspect. The townhouse is remarkable for the pictures and curiosities it contains; among other articles one may observe the glass out of which Luther used to drink. Some of the eight churches are adorned with fine paintings; the stained windows in the cathedral are admired, and those in the church of St. Clair are remarkable for their antiquity, they were made in the year 1278. A well more than five hundred

and thirty-six feet in depth is situated in one of the courts that communicates with the castle, an old building in which may be seen a valuable collection of paintings. The town is adorned with several fountains; it possesses a great many schools, a gymnasium, different literary and scientific societies and five public buildings.

BOOK
CXXXII.

The commerce of Nuremberg must be considerable, since by means of it three hundred and fifty mercantile houses are maintained; not fewer than four hundred and eighty-seven different articles are made or manufactured within its walls. It has been supposed that it carries on a greater trade in cutlery than any other town in Germany; it contains two mints, a bank and a mount of piety. The catholics make up a twentieth part of the population; the total number of inhabitants has been estimated by Hassel at thirty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five.

Commerce.
Inventions.

Nuremberg was the birth place of Albert Durer, the celebrated painter, and other distinguished men; indeed if their inventions be considered, they are entitled to the gratitude of posterity. Peter Hele invented watches there; Rudolph, the drawing plates for iron wire; John Lobsinger, air guns, Christopher Denner, the clarinet, Erasmua Ebener, the alloy known by the name of brass, Martin Behaim, the terrestrial sphere, which without doubt contributed to the discovery of America; lastly, John Mueschel improved different musical instruments.

The other towns in the same circle might be considered insignificant after Nuremberg. Schwabach on the river of the same name, is noted for its needles and cotton cloths; it contains nine thousand five hundred inhabitants. The small town of Bayerdorf on the Reignitz, carries on a trade in cutlery and hardware goods. Rothenburg is built in the Gothic style, it contains a fine townhouse, a library, valuable from its rare manuscripts, and a population of eight thousand persons. Dinkelsbühl, encompassed with walls, and flanked with turrets, is built like the last town, and peopled by seven thousand inhabitants.

Different
towns.

BOOK
CXXIIINoerdlin-
gen.

Noerdlingen is well known in Bavaria for its bacon and geese, more than thirty thousand of the latter are annually exported. It is built on the Egger, and surrounded with ditches, ramparts and turrets. St. Magdelen is the largest church in the town, and its steeple reaches to the height of three hundred and forty-three feet. The number of inhabitants amounts to seven thousand six hundred, and their trade consists in the produce of their manufactures, such as linen, worsted stockings, fustians and horse covers.

Circle of
the Lower
Maine.

The circle of the Lower Maine is formed by the former great dutchy of Wurtzburg, the province of Aschaffenburg, different parts of Fuld, and several districts ceded by Hesse.

Wurtzburg or the capital contains more than twenty thousand inhabitants; once an imperial town, it was afterwards subject to a bishop, one of whose prerogatives was to have a naked sword carried before him. The fortifications have fallen into decay, but the town is still defended by a high wall and a deep ditch. The Maine divides it into two parts, that on the right bank of the river is the ancient Wurtzburg, the other on the left bank is called the quarter of the Maine. A fine bridge of eight arches, and five hundred and forty feet in length forms a communication between the old and new towns.

The fortress of Marienburg in the quarter of the Maine, rises on a rock about four hundred feet in height, and on the same hill are the ruins of an ancient building, which was supposed to have been a temple consecrated to *Frey*, the Venus of the Scandinavians. The old town, though irregularly built, is adorned by several fine buildings; such are the royal castle and the cathedral; the largest of the thirty-three churches, remarkable for many curious monuments, among others, a pulpit of the most finished workmanship. The large hospital of Julius, twelve others and several charitable institutions, different libraries, scientific collections, numerous schools, an university, which

was founded more than four hundred years ago,* and a considerable trade, particularly in wine, render the town one of the most valuable acquisitions which Bavaria has lately obtained. BOOK
CXXIII.

The vineyards in the neighbourhood of Wurtzburg have been celebrated since the thirteenth century. The Leiste is more esteemed than the wines of Franconia; the Stein wine is produced on a territory that belongs to the hospital of Julius; it is sold in the country for four shillings the bottle. Another sort not less prized is known by the name of the holy spirit; it grows on the vineyards of Harpe, which belong mostly to the chapter of Hauch. The wines of Schalksberg and Calmus are little inferior to any that have been mentioned. Vineyards.

Karlstadt carries on a considerable trade in different wines. Sweinfurth on the same river, a town of seven thousand inhabitants, possesses an arsenal, a gymnasium, and several elementary schools. It is abundantly supplied with water from thirty-seven public fountains. The excellent wine of Saleck constitutes the trade of Hammelburg, a small town on the Saale. The five thousand inhabitants of Kitzingen are mostly engaged in a lucrative commerce, that of conveying goods to the south of Germany. The most remarkable building in the town is a bridge across the Maine, which leads to the suburbs of Edwashaufen. The number of arches amounts to fifteen, and it is more than a thousand feet in length. As it does not exceed sixteen feet in breadth, it appears perhaps longer than it really is. Different towns.

* Public instruction is committed to thirty-one professors and four teachers. The number of students in the winter session of 1825 and 1826, amounted to six hundred and seventy-six; namely, four hundred and ninety-seven Bavarians, and a hundred and seventy-nine foreigners; they belonged to the following faculties.

Theology	144
Law	213
Medicine	158
Philosophy	161

BOOK CXXIII. **Aschaffenburg.** 'Aschaffenburg is' situated below the eastern declivities of the Spessart, on the banks of the Maine. Its importance depends on its schools and scientific collections, not on the number of its inhabitants, which does not exceed six thousand. A large castle in the middle of a park is the finest edifice near the town. It was a place of residence during the summer for the electors of Mayence. It possesses at present a trade in leather and beetrave sugar; it is besides the depot of the merchandise that descends the Maine, and the naval timber obtained from the forests on the Spessart.

Circle of the Upper Danube. The circle of the Upper Danube derives its importance from the number of its towns, and the different branches of industry in which their inhabitants are engaged. More paper-mills are contained in it than in any other department in Bavaria.

Augsburg. Augsburg or the capital, although inferior to Munich, is the second town in the kingdom. Having already made some mention of its antiquity, it may now be more minutely described. It stands on a large and beautiful plain between the Lech and the Wertach, which join each other at its ramparts, and carry their united streams to the Danube. It is supposed that the number of inhabitants exceeds thirty-three thousand; as in other ancient towns, the streets are narrow and irregular; a few only are straight, and the *May* is without doubt the finest in Augsburg. The fountains which embellish it are supposed to render it more salubrious. The principal squares are those of the May, Caroline and the new market place.

Buildings. The townhouse is admitted to be the largest and most regularly built of any in Germany; the golden hall, a chamber in the same building is a hundred feet in length, and nearly fifty in breadth. It was in the ancient episcopal palace, now changed into government offices, that the confession of Augsburg was read before Charles V. in 1530. The cathedral has been considered a finer building than any of the other twelve churches, six of

which belong to the catholics. and six to the lutherans. One church, however, that of St. Ulric, cannot be too highly commended for its bold and lofty arches; the lutherans and catholics perform their rites in it alternately. The church of the Franciscans is only remarkable for the size of its organ, the other public buildings are the arsenal, the market and the theatre. BOOK
CXXIII.

Augsburg is still the residence of a bishop, but he does not enjoy the same power as formerly; the diocess was once richer than any other in Christendom, and the bishops of Augsburg were entitled princes of the empire. Hartman bequeathed to the bishops, in the thirteenth century, his riches and the county of Wittislingen. It became afterwards more important, but was reduced at last like almost all the other chapters in Germany. Augsburg has its gymnasium, different seminaries, a polytechnic school, a public library and a fine collection of paintings, the most of them are by German masters. The capital, belonging to hospitals and charitable institutions, was equal in 1807 to 6,600,000 florins. Bishops.

Although the manufactures of Augsburg were formerly in a more flourishing condition than at present, its is still very great; indeed, its manufactories of every sort, and its many mercantile houses render it a central point in commercial Europe. Industry,
commerce.

Neuburg on the Danube, is peopled by seven thousand inhabitants, encompassed by walls, and commanded by a castle, built on an eminence. The barracks, three churches, a lyceum and several hospitals are the principal public buildings, but the most interesting monument is the tomb of La Tour d'Auvergne, who was killed in the year 1800, on the road between Neuburg and Donawerth, a small town of two thousand five hundred inhabitants, where Lewis the Severe ordered his wife Mary of Brabant to be beheaded, and which is famous for the victory gained over the French and Bavarians in 1703 by the Austrians, whom Marlborough commanded. That bloody engagement took place near the village of Blenheim, and about eighty years Neuburg.

**BOOK
CXXIII.**

afterwards an immense quantity of bones were dug by labourers, while they were employed in making a road. Tallard had obtained the command of the French army by intrigue, Villars might perhaps have led it to victory; at all events its fate was avenged by the French both in 1796 and in 1800.

Memmingen.

Memmingen, formerly an imperial town, is watered by the Ach; it contains eight thousand inhabitants. The town-house the arsenal and exchequer are the most remarkable buildings. It possesses a lyceum, a public library, a musical school and different seminaries. Heiss, Sichelbein and other artists were born in the town; its trade, which is at present considerable, consists in hops, linen, serge and different kinds of cloth.

Kempton.

Kempton rivals the last town in industry and commerce. It is situated on the banks of the Iller, and surrounded with hills. It was founded before the eighth century. Hildegard, the wife of Charlemagne, gave to the chapter of the town all the wealth which was left her by her mother. The property of the convent, which still bears the name of the empress, forms the greater part of Kempton, and the one in which many hospitals, charity-schools and other benevolent institutions are situated.

Lindau.

Lindau, formerly a free and imperial town, rises on the lake of Constance. Its population amounted at one time to six thousand inhabitants; it does not exceed at present three thousand five hundred. The harbour, or rather the Maximilian basin, may contain three hundred vessels. Because many of the houses are built on piles, the town has been called Little Venice. The ancient castle, which commands it, was for a long time inhabited by monks.

**Circle of
the Rhine.**

The different circles that have been described are governed by commissioners, and the police are subject to the authority of other commissioners. Each circle is also subdivided into different courts or justices, as they are called in the country, and all of them have their chief towns. As several of these courts are more or less dependent on privileged nobles, they are sometimes styled mediate or seig-

neurial courts; their decisions may be revoked by the supreme tribunal at Munich.

**BOOK
CXXIII.**

The Rhenish possessions of Bavaria make up the circle of the Rhine; it is mostly formed by the ancient French department of Mont-Tonnerre, and by some districts in the former departments of the Sarre and the Lower Rhine. It may be equal in superficial extent to a hundred and forty German, or to nearly one thousand six hundred and eighty English square miles. The country is bounded on the north and the west by the Prussian provinces on the Rhine, by some districts belonging to the dutchy of Saxe Coburg-Gotha, and by the Landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg, on the south by France, and on the east by the great dutchies of Baden and Hesse.

Circle of
the Rhine.

The northern extremity of the Vosges occupies a great Soil-part of the surface. Hassel calculated the summit of Wandelstein to be 2000 feet above the level of the sea, but it is much lower than Donnersberg or Mont-Tonnere. The mountainous districts are composed of red sandstone and other rocks of the second formation. A long belt of ancient calcareous rocks extends from north to south along the plains and districts on the Rhine, which forms the natural boundary of the country. The same belt serves as a support for more recent deposits or lands of the third formation through which the river flows. Almost all the mountains in the circle are well wooded, but the southern declivities or the heights connected with the principal chain, are covered with vineyards. The largest forest or the Bien may be about fifteen miles in length, and nearly two in breadth. The extent of the Harth is more than thirty thousand acres. The rivers that water the country, flow either towards the north or the east, and enter the Rhine, or towards the south, and unite with the Sarre. The climate is wholesome, but colder on the mountains and western declivities, than on the eastern sides or the plains which extend along the Rhine.

The country abounds in clay, well adapted for bricks and coarse earthen ware, in marble, coal, rock salt and Mineral productions.

BOOK different metals; it yields annually thirty-three thousand
CXXIII. hundredweights of iron, eighty-five thousand of coal, and
 six hundred and seventy-two of mercury.

Ancient
 inhabit-
 ants.

The heights were inhabited during the time of Cæsar by the *Nemetes*, and their lands extended to the Rhine. The *Mediomatrici* occupied the western declivities; but as they possessed besides, all the territory which now forms the department of the Moselle, they shall be mentioned more fully in the account of France. Little is known concerning the *Nemetes*; it is certain, however, that before the war carried on by the Romans against Ariovistus, they settled on the left bank of the Rhine, which they compelled the *Mediomatrici* to abandon; they inhabited before that period the right bank of the same river. Tacitus does not consider them Gauls; without doubt, says the historian, the *Vangiones*, *Tribocci* and *Nemetes* are of German origin.^a It appears from the same author, that they served as auxiliaries in the Roman armies.^b

Spires.

The circle of the Rhine is not governed in the same manner as the other Bavarian provinces; some modifications have been made in the system, which was established by France under the imperial government. It is divided into four departments, which are subdivided into thirty-two districts. Speyer or Spires, the capital, is watered by a small river of the same name, at a short distance from the Rhine. It is well walled, and five gates form the entrances to the town. The principal edifices are the town-house and the cathedral, which contains the ashes of eight emperors and as many empresses; the monuments erected to their memory, are now in ruins. It possesses fifteen catholic and two protestant churches; yet out of its six thousand four hundred inhabitants, there are not more than sixteen hundred catholics. Some authors believe it to have been founded before the Christian era.^c The

^a De Moribus Germanorum, XXVIII. ^b Annals Book XII. sect. 26.

^c Corneille, Dictionnaire Géographique.—Dumont Voyage sur les bords du Rhin.

same writers suppose that Spira and Nimidœa were its ancient names, and that it was the chief city of the Nemetes, (*civitas Nemetum*). It cannot be denied that it was a Germanic town at the commencement of the middle ages, and there is reason to believe that it was the metropolis of a diocese in the year 348. But it had been destroyed or had fallen into decay before the reign of Dagobert the First, since that prince ordered it to be rebuilt, and made it over to his chaplain. If the streets and buildings do not appear to be ancient, it must be recollected that it was destroyed by the French during the war in the Palatinate.

The other towns in the circle are not very important. Frankenthal, the name of which serves to recal the ancient kingdom of Franconia, contains only four thousand inhabitants; but it possesses a greater trade than any other town in the province. Grunstadt, situated in a fruitful district, and watered by the Liss, was the birth place of Olbein, the celebrated painter. Kaiserslautern, which contains a gymnasium, a normal school, and four thousand six hundred inhabitants, is memorable from the battles fought by the French and Prussians in 1793 and 1794. Pirmassenz, the scene of a destructive combat, is well built; troops are stationed in its castle, and the population amounts to five thousand individuals. Deux-Ponts or Zwey-Brücken, which contains six thousand inhabitants, is agreeably situated on the Erlbach; the streets are clean, straight and well paved. It is adorned by a fine castle; but the one that belonged to the ancient dukes of Deux-Ponts, was wholly destroyed.

Landau on the Queich, a town fortified by Vauban, although reserved at present for the confederation, is the station of a Bavarian garrison. The fortifications form a regular octagon; two gates only lead to the town, and the population is the same as that of Deux-Ponts. The streets are regular, the barracks, powder magazines, and store-houses are bomb proof. Germersheim, situated also on the Queich, and not far from the Rhine, may be mention-

**BOOK
CXXIII.**

ed on account of its old fortress, where the emperor Rodolphus of Habsburg died, and also on account of a gold washing which has been established in the neighbourhood, on the banks of the river. Several burghs and villages of some importance from their population, shall be enumerated in the tables at the end of the chapter. The trade of the circle is not without activity, but it might be much improved, if the canals of Frankenthal and Deux-Ponts, which have been neglected by government, were finished and kept in good repair.

It was thought unnecessary to enter into minute details concerning the places of education, and scientific institutions in the different towns; it may be remarked, however, that the diffusion of knowledge has been more promoted by the Bavarian than by the former French government. The population of all the towns in the circle, and in the other Bavarian provinces, has not been stated, but the reader may be referred to the following tables, in which will be found the most important facts relative to the statistics of the kingdom.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE

Kingdom of Bavaria and the Bavarian possessions on the Rhine, according to the latest authorities.

The Population of Bavaria Proper and the Rhenish province amounted in 1827 to 3,940,000 individuals, or on an average to 2,628 for every German, or 220 for every English square mile.

Number of families	875,560
Noble families	1384
having seigneurial possessions	878
without landed property	506

	Number of Seigneurial Possessions.	Number of Families for every German Square Mile.
Circle of the Isar	227	377
the Lower Danube	153	499
the Regen	179	444
the Upper Maine	100 +	566
the Rezat	64	781
the Lower Maine	77	622
the Upper Danube	78	610
the Rhine	0	809

* The population of a Circle is more or less considerable, according to the number of its seigneurial possessions; unless, indeed, the natural effect of such properties be counterbalanced by particular circumstances, as in the Circle of the Isar, the only exception to the rule. The population in the Circle of the Rhine is greater than in any other, and in that Circle there are no privileged proprietors.

**BOOK
CXXIII.***Division of the Inhabitants according to their Origin.*

Germans	3,860,000
Jews	56,500
French	3,500

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	2,710,000
Lutherans	1,100,000
Reformists or Calvinists	78,000
Mennonites and other Dissenters	1,000
Jews	56,000

Distribution of the Population.

Inhabitants in the towns of the first and second class	563,000
———— in the small towns and in the country	3,377,000

Towns, &c. according to Hassel.

Number of towns	229
———— burghs	399
———— villages and parishes	2,920
———— small villages and hamlets	28,449
———— taxed houses, about	652,000

Mortality in different parts of the Kingdom.

At Nuremberg	1 in 40
At Augsburg	1 in 36
In the Circle of the Isar	1 in 29
In the Circle of the Upper Maine	1 in 38

Mean Number of Capital Punishments.

The proportion in all the Bavarian possessions, is as one to twenty thousand individuals.

Occupations of the Jews.

Out of 10,663 Jewish families, those engaged in commerce amount to	10,242
In different trades	169
In agriculture	252

* Of these houses, 484,000, and 447,000 buildings connected with them, were insured against fire in 1824, for the sum of 385,739,235 florins.

*Number of Towns, &c. according to the Surface.*BOOK
CXXXIII.

Number of towns in every 6½ German square miles	1
— burghs in every 3½ German square miles	1
— villages in every German square mile	2
— hamlets, Idem	9
— houses, Idem	435

Churches.

Catholic churches	2,773
Lutheran churches	1,034
Reformed churches	138

Places of Education.

Universities	3
Lyceums	7
Gymnasias	18
Colleges	21
Preparatory schools	35
Houses of education	16
Others for higher branches of education	7
Boarding Schools for girls	2
Normal schools	7
School for foreigners	1
Schools of law	2
Veterinary schools	2
Schools of midwifery	2
Royal schools	2
Public schools	5,394

Teachers and Pupils.

Number of those, whose office it is to examine and inspect the schools	286
Teachers	7,114
Pupils of all classes, about	498,000

Fiefs dependent on the Crown.

Principalities	11
Counties	13

Division of the Circles in hundred parts of their surface, made in 1826.

	Cultivated Lands.	Forests.	Waste Lands.
Circle of the Isar	35	31	34
— Lower Danube	50	29	21

BOOK CXXIII.		Cultivated Lands.	Forests.	Waste Lands.
	Circle of Regen	47	30	23
	Upper Maine	60	29	11
	Rezat	70	22	8
	Lower Maine	58	32	10
	Upper Danube	50	25	25
	Rhine	57	36	7

Division of the Forests in Acres.

	Forests be- longing to the State.	To Towns, Burghs, Vil- lages and Foundations.	To Individuals.	Total num- ber of acres.
Circle of the Isar	521,560	101,096	813,553	1,436,209
Lower Danube	173,533	783	481,253	655,569
Regen	258,010	126,661	411,733	796,404
Upper Maine	416,545	100,342	197,529	714,416
Rezat	225,386	151,243	165,067	541,696
Lower Maine	233,611	337,524	190,576	761,701
Upper Danube	217,627	160,699	374,849	753,175
Rhine	366,067	268,550	70,089	704,706
	2,412,329	1,246,898	2,704,649	6,363,876

Details relative to each Circle, taken from Hassel's Tables for 1822.

A. CIRCLE OF THE ISAR,

DIVIDED INTO 27 COURTS OR JUSTICES.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every Ger- man Square Mile.
310	500,600	109,046	1611
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages.	Hamlets.
15	41	3,271	7,985

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	477,300
Lutherans	20,500
Jews	2,800

Places of Education.

University
Lyceum

Normal School	.	.	.	.	1	BOOK CXXIII.
Seminaries	.	.	.	.	2	
Boarding Schools for girls	.	.	.	.	2	

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Trauenstein	.	.	.	.	3,330
Landsberg	.	.	.	.	2,739
Laufen	.	.	.	.	2,539
Reichenhall	.	.	.	.	2,395
Rosenheim	.	.	.	.	2,240
Wasserburg	.	.	.	.	2,100

B. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER DANUBE,**DIVIDED INTO 19 COURTS.**

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every Ger- man Square Mile.
197	355,200	77,157	1800
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages.	Hamlets.
12	46	2,048	7,028

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	.	.	.	.	349,500
Lutherans	.	.	.	.	1,600
Jews	.	.	.	.	4,100

Places of Education.

Gymnasia	.	.	.	.	2
Different seminaries	.	.	.	.	28

Population of the Towns that have not been described.

Deggendorf	.	.	.	.	2,557
Burghausen	.	.	.	.	2,042

C. CIRCLE OF THE REGEN,**DIVIDED INTO 20 COURTS.**

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every Ger- man Square Mile.
194	364,800	79,422	1874

**BOOK
CXXIII.**Towns.
28Burghs.
66Villages and hamlets.
3,160*Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.*

Catholics	.	.	.	.	.	.	320,600
Lutherans	.	.	.	.	.	.	37,000
Jews	.	.	.	.	.	.	7,200

Places of Education.

Lyceums	.	.	.	.	.	.	2
Gymnasias	.	.	.	.	.	.	2
Colleges	.	.	.	.	.	.	3
Royal School	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Preparatory Schools	.	.	.	.	.	.	8
Normal School	.	.	.	.	.	.	1
Different Schools	.	.	.	.	.	.	33

Population of the Principal Towns, that have not been described.

Neumarkt	.	.	.	.	.	4,075
Sulzbach	.	.	.	.	.	3,690
Kelheim	.	.	.	.	.	2,509

D. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER MAINE,**DIVIDED INTO 34 COURTS.**

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
186	475,100	103,488	2,548

Towns.
37Burghs.
72Villages and hamlets.
2,271*Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.*

Catholics	.	.	.	.	.	228,800
Lutherans	.	.	.	.	.	201,300
Calvinists or Reformists	.	.	.	.	.	200
Jews	.	.	.	.	.	8,000

Places of Education.

Lyceum	.	.	.	.	.	1
Gymnasias	.	.	.	.	.	3

Colleges	3	BOOK.
Preparatory Latin Schools	7	CXXIII.
Normal Schools	1	

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Krouach	3,885
Wunsiadel	3,845
Forcheim	3,535
Selb	2,730
Münchberg	2,700
Lichtensfels	2,620
Weiden	2,600

E. CIRCLE OF THE REZAT,

DIVIDED INTO 29 COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
143	530,800	115,409	3,702
Towns. 42	Burghs. 55	Villages and hamlets, 2,004	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	109,700
Lutherans	410,000
Reformists	100
Jews	11,000

Places of Education.

University	1
Gymnasias	2
Colleges	2
Preparatory Latin Schools	2
Different Seminaries	12
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Weissenburg	5,005
Windsheim	3,565
Roth	3,185

BOOK CXXIII.	Lauf	3,160
	Ettingen	3,065
	Aldorf	3,060
	Neustadt on the Aisch	3,040
	Feuchtwang	2,855
	Gunzenhausen	2,565
	Hersbruck	2,520
	Iphofen	2,482
	Wemding	2,330
	Wassertrudingen	2,250
	Uffenheim	2,100
	Herrogenaurach	2,000
	Pappenheim	2,000

F. CIRCLE OF THE LOWER MAINE,

DIVIDED INTO FORTY-SEVEN COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
165	491,100	105,733	3,154
Towns.	Boroughs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
44	55	1188	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	407,300
Lutherans	75,000
Jews	8,800

Places of Education.

University	1
Lyceum	1
Gymnasias	3
Colleges	3
Preparatory Schools	6
School for Foreigners	1
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Lohr	3,780
Orb.	3,549
Amorbach	3,375
Heidingsfeld.	2,995
Miltenberg	2,880
Ochsenfurt	2,468
Hassfurt	2,439

DESCRIPTION OF GERMANY.

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Gerolzhofen	2,380	BOOK CXXIII.
Melbrichstadt	2,290	
Neustadt on the Saale	2,221	
Arustein	2,135	
Dettelbach	2,132	

G. CIRCLE OF THE UPPER DANUBE,

DIVIDED INTO THIRTY-TWO COURTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
171	510,100	111,126	2,970
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
23	47	1,778	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	483,300
Lutherans	25,800
Reformists	900
Jews	2,100

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasias	4
Seminaries	2
Ecclesiastical Seminary	1
Preparatory Latin Schools	7

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described.

Neuburg	6,900
Lauringen	5,460
Kaufbeuern	4,705
Günzburg	3,805
Gundelfingen	3,675
Dillingen	3,610
Hoechstet	3,150
Burgau	2,285
Friedberg	2,144
Mindelheim	2,115
Fussen	2,000

H. CIRCLE OF THE RHINE,

DIVIDED INTO TWELVE DEPARTMENTS AND THIRTY-ONE DISTRICTS.

Surface in German Square Miles.	Population.	Families.	Population for every German Square Mile.
140	403,100	87,815	2,878
Towns.	Burghs.	Villages and Hamlets.	
28	16	665	

Division of the Inhabitants according to their Religion.

Catholics	120,000
Lutherans	207,690
Reformists	60,000
Mennonites	710
Jews	6,700

Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Gymnasias	2
Colleges	5
Preparatory Latin Schools	5
Normal School	1

Population of the Principal Towns that have not been described, and of some large Burghs and Villages.*

Neustadt on the Hardt	4,805
Dürkeim (Id.)	3,790
Deidesheim	3,015
Kirchheim-Poland	2,510
Bergzabern	2,324
Wachenheim	2,200
Annweiler	2,196
Homburg	2,157
Otterberg	2,000

*According to M. Kolb: Neu. Geog. Ephemer. Weimar, 1825. The population of the circle amounts to 448,917 inhabitants and 89,000 families.

In general, to ascertain the population of Bavaria in 1827, it is necessary to add a twelfth to the numbers given by Hassel for 1822, a rule, which has been followed in the detailed account of each circle.

*Burghs and Villages.*BOOK
CXXIII.

Edenkoben	4,025
Hassloch	3,560
Kandel	3,097
Herrnheim	2,868
Mutterstadt	2,140
Kalsburg	2,100
Leimersheim	2,029

BUDGET

OF THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA IN 1825, ACCORDING TO THE
ACCOUNTS PRESENTED TO THE CHAMBERS.

Revenue.

Direct taxes	8,900,000 florins.
Indirect taxes	9,100,000
Revenue from the royal fiefs, &c.	5,160,000
Regal rights	3,950,000
Receipts in arrear	1,590,000
Different receipts	2,600,000
	31,300,000

Expenditure.

Sinking fund	8,354,000 florins.
Charges of the household and the court	2,745,000
chambers	52,600
Administration of the household and foreign affairs	570,000
justice	1,732,000
the interior	1,300,664
finances	1,011,600
Public instruction	735,148
Clergy	1,251,172
Hospitals	118,851
Roads and bridges	1,300,000
Army	7,880,000
	27,051,535
Royal establishments	4,195,936

31,247,471

**BOOK
CXXIII.***National Debt.*

In 1820 it amounted to

110,876,084 florins.

In 1824 to

110,781,740

Reduction in four years

94,344

BOOK CXXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Eight Section.—Territories and Free Towns of Bremen, Hamburg, Lubeck and Frankfort on the Maine.

AN account shall be given in the present chapter, of the territories and towns that have continued free, notwithstanding all the changes introduced into the political divisions of Germany, by the ambition of conquerors, and the intrigues of cabinets. Before we cross the mountains, which separate Bavaria from Bohemia, before we describe the provinces of the Austrian empire, it is necessary to examine the remains of that federative power, which possessed for several centuries, so much influence in the affairs of Germany. BOOK
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Industry and commerce are so favourable to civilization by the wealth they diffuse, by the spirit of independence they produce, that wherever they exist, wherever they flourish, freedom triumphs sooner or later over every obstacle. In the middle ages, the principal towns in Germany, subject to the empire, were governed by bishops, dukes and counts, who endeavoured and too often succeeded in destroying their independence. Worms and Cologne proved their attachment to the emperor Henry the fourth, by embracing his cause against the authority of their bishops.* Their conduct determined the crown to

* Schmidt, tome III. page 239.

BOOK increase the number of freemen by granting to the
CXXIV. working classes in these cities, a right, which at the time was considered a privilege. The bishops and lords, the temporal governors of Worms and Cologne, inherited the moveable property of the lower orders, or at least as much of it as they pleased; that custom was then abolished. Other towns obtained at a later period the same advantages; not long afterwards, they purchased the right of choosing their own magistrates, and also of sending deputies to support their interests in the Germanic diets.^b

These immunities or privileges, which distinguished the imperial towns from other cities, were at first only conferred on the persons who inhabited within their walls. But the peasants, being naturally anxious for some security against the oppression of their lords, bought the right of settling under the walls, between the ditches and palisades; they were therefore called *phal burger* or burgesses of the palisades; and their houses, crowded round the walls, were in course of time denominated suburbs.^c

The towns extended gradually the limits of their jurisdiction to a considerable distance from their ramparts. As many as settled in their territory, enjoyed the privileges of citizens, under the name of *Aus Burger*, or outer burgesses; hence the origin of free towns, possessing territories equally free, and forming small independent states. So many advantages made the nobles more jealous of the imperial cities. If it be difficult to obtain freedom, it is still more so to preserve it. Although the towns rivalled each other in commerce and industry, they found it necessary to unite and to form a sort of federative state, that they might be better able to resist the power of the bishops and lords, who denied their rights to be valid, because they had been acquired by purchase. Compelled by the usurpations and oppressive authority of the independent nobles

^b Schmidt, tome VI, page 31.

^c See Schmidt, tome IV and VI. Pfeffel, page 402. Ducange, Glossary.

in Germany, more than sixty towns formed a confederation on the Rhine in the year 1255.

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The origin of the Hanseatic league, may be attributed to similar causes, although its object was to protect the commerce of some imperial towns. The old German word *Hanse*, which signifies an alliance, did not indicate merely the intention of facilitating commercial transactions between the different inhabitants, but of resisting princes on the coast of the Baltic, and maintaining a free navigation on that sea. The league dates from the year 1164, and Bremen was the first town that planned and executed the project. The wealth acquired by the alliance was so great, that many trading towns in different counties entered into the league; among the number, might be mentioned Antwerp, Amsterdam and several other ports in Holland, Calais, Rouen, Bordeaux and other towns in France, lastly, Cadiz, Lisbon, Naples and London. So gigantic a confederation was gradually reduced to a few maritime towns on the Baltic. The Hanseatic union, founded for commercial purposes, became a great naval power; it had its fleets and armies, which were formidable to the kings of Denmark. It blockaded Copenhagen in the fourteenth century, and forced Waldemar the Third, to give up the province of Schonen to the confederation. Forty vessels, manned with good seamen and twelve hundred soldiers, sailed on an expedition against Eric, king of Denmark in 1428. The league assisted Brunswick in 1615, at that time invested by its duke, who was compelled to raise the siege.^d The great master of the Teutonic order, Sweden and Denmark had been all at different times, protectors of the league; but it lost at last its energy and its power, the causes, which had led to its formation, ceased gradually to exist; its commerce still remained, but its armies were useless. The number of Hanseatic towns at the commencement of the eighteenth century, was reduced to six. Bremen, Lubeck, Hamburg, Rostock, Danzig and Cologne

Origin of
the Hanse-
atic league.

Bremen.

^d Heiss, History of the empire, book VI.

BOOK retained an empty title,—they had no alliance to main-
CXXIV. tain; at present, Bremen, Hamburg and Lubeck are not even considered free towns, possessing separate governments.

Bremen. As the assemblies of the ancient Hanseatic league were held in Bremen, it ought, perhaps on that account to be first described. It is situated on the banks of the Weser and the Wumme, at thirty leagues from the sea.

It must have been a place of some importance about the end of the eighth century, when Charlemagne made it the capital of an archiepiscopal see; it contains at present five thousand three hundred and sixty houses, and thirty-eight thousand inhabitants, more than two-thirds of whom are reformists or calvinists. The cathedral is reserved for those who adhere to the Augsburg confession, and the calvinists have four parish churches. The principal seminary is a gymnasium for the children of lutherans and calvinists; there are besides other schools, a library and a museum of natural history. The public buildings are, the observatory of Dr. Olbert, who was born in the town, the treasury, the chamber of commerce, and the town-house, an edifice remarkable not only for its curious architecture, but also for its cellars, in which are contained an immense quantity of the finest Rhenish wines. Bremen is divided into the old and new town; the first is gloomy and ill built; some regular streets and modern houses are situated in the other on the left bank of the Weser; the ancient fortifications are now changed into public walks.

Manufac- The manufactures are linen, camlet, cloth, hats, worsted
tures. stockings, tobacco, oil and glass. The art of refining sugar is well understood, and the beer is supposed to be better than any other in Germany. But the wealth of Bremen depends not so much on its manufactures as on its commerce. The many advantages of its situation render it the mart of all the merchandise that descends the Weser; indeed it was considered, after Hamburg, the most important acquisition, which the French made under the

imperial government; it then became the capital of a department,—the mouths of the Weser. It carries on a great trade in fish, such as herring, salmon and whales: eleven of its vessels were sent to the herring fisheries in 1817. The linens and cottons prepared every year in its bleachfields, are purchased in different parts of Germany, and they are supposed to be equal in value to five millions of rixdollars; it receives other articles, and gives in exchange French and Spanish wines, and different kinds of colonial produce. The number of vessels that enter its harbour every year, exceeds a thousand. Banks and maritime insurance offices have been established to protect and encourage its commerce; its revenues may amount to four hundred thousand florins.

The territory belonging to it contains ten thousand inhabitants, and the extent of surface is little more than fifty English square miles; in that small space are situated the burgh of Vegesack, and thirty-five villages or hamlets. The same burgh and Elfsleth in the dutchy of Oldenburgh form the harbour of Bremen. But as large vessels cannot enter these small ports, which are at some leagues from the sea, all the goods are conveyed to the town in boats.

Bremen is governed by an assembly, composed of four mayors, two syndics and twenty-four counsellors, seventeen of whom are lawyers, and the remaining seven, merchants. Calvinists only are admitted into the council, indeed the exclusive system has been carried so far, that Lutherans cannot hold civil employments.^c Thus, although the magistrates may be upright men, the laws are oppressive, and many inhabitants are deprived of what may be considered their just rights. The government of the town and territory is vested in the council; and the revenue is committed to its management; it presides over the administration of justice, and whenever matters of importance render it necessary, calls together the leading and influential citizens, who, although they

BOOK
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Govern-
ment.

BOOK meet at no stated periods, form a sort of legislative assembly.
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Military
force.

It may be remarked in proof of the patriotism which prevails in this small republic, that all the citizens capable of bearing arms are divided into different classes. The men from twenty-six to thirty-five years of age form three battalions. The officers of government are only exempted, if their duties are incompatible with the military service. Men from twenty to twenty-five years of age, make up another battalion, the only one which is equipped at the expense of the state. The town has no other troops than this sort of national guard, it is, however, obliged to furnish four hundred and eighty-five men to the Germanic confederation.

Hamburg.

Hamburg was considered one of the most commercial towns in Europe, when it was united to the French empire in 1810, and made the capital of a French department,—the mouths of the Elbe. It contained at that time a population of a hundred and seven thousand inhabitants. The lands in the neighbourhood, covered with country houses, plantations and cultivated fields, might have been compared to an extensive and magnificent garden, which the course of the Elbe, and many picturesque views served to adorn. When France had to resist a powerful league in 1813, Hamburg, which owed its wealth and resources to its commerce, was suddenly changed into an imposing and fortified town. So great was the extent of the military works, that the lofty trees which shaded the public walks, the country houses that proclaimed the wealth of the inhabitants, as well as the humble cottage of the peasant,—gardens, hedges and inclosures, all were destroyed to a considerable distance from the walls. A great part of the suburbs was levelled with the ground, and the losses which the inhabitants then sustained, were estimated, according to a very moderate calculation, at L.3,000,000. But the various articles which were not taken into account, the merchandise that was spoiled, the ships that were damaged, the buildings that were destroyed, made the whole equal to L.4,000,000. The wants of the French army ob-

lized the general who commanded it, to dispose of more than 7,500,000 marks taken from the funds of the Hamburg bank. By a treaty concluded in 1816, the French government agreed to pay Hamburg the sum of L.500,000. Peace, by affording encouragement to commerce, has restored the city to its ancient prosperity,—at the time when it was distinguished from its rivals, when vessels from every nation entered its harbour. It did not contain more than sixty thousand individuals in 1814, the number of inhabitants at present exceeds a hundred and ten thousand.

The catholics amount to two thousand, the reformists Catholics. Catholics or calvinists to four thousand, the Mennonites to five hundred, and the Jews to six thousand, the other inhabitants adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Although the town, in proportion to its size, may be Buildings. considered one of the most wealthy in Europe, the public buildings are very ordinary; two, however, are finer than the rest,—the treasury and the church of St. Michael, the tower of which rises four hundred feet above the ground; but even these edifices are merely remarkable on account of their positions in the neighbourhood of narrow and dirty streets, brick houses, and buildings which recal the period of Charlemagne, who is believed to have been the founder of Hamburg. The *Binex-Alster*, or the only public walk within the town, is formed by a range of trees, planted near a large sheet of water. Dense crowds frequent the public walk in the summer evenings; and the number of vessels that cover the basin, give it the appearance of a floating city. After London and Amsterdam, Hamburg is the most commercial town in Europe; the inhabitants are affluent; numerous equipages are seen on its streets; the utmost activity prevails in the harbour from the morning until two o'clock in the afternoon, and at that hour merchants of every description repair to the exchange. The interior of the houses corresponds with the wealth of the inhabitants, which is displayed in the ornaments of dress, and in the luxury and magnificence of

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the table. In Hamburg little deference is paid to rank or antiquity of family, a man is estimated by the importance and extent of his mercantile transactions. The spirit of commerce seems to pervade every individual; in the theatre and in the drawing-room, in balls and every other place of amusement, trade, the course of exchange, and mercantile speculations are the subject of conversation. Thus, there are few cities where the arts are so little cultivated or so little appreciated; in the account of the most insignificant towns in Germany, mention has been made of scientific institutions, museums, and libraries, but if strangers look for similar collections at all worthy of such a place as Hamburg, they will be disappointed. The books in the public library are not valuable or numerous; the museum of natural history belonging to the patriotic society contains nothing in any way remarkable, and it might be difficult to enumerate more than a very few individuals who devote part of their time to literature or science.

**Places of
education.**

The same remarks are less applicable to the places of education; their number is perhaps sufficient for the wants, certainly for the tastes and pursuits of the inhabitants. The principal schools are a gymnasium, a commercial seminary, a drawing and naval academy; in addition to these might be mentioned a pharmaceutical seminary and different gratuitous schools.

Mendicants.

Although no mendicants are seen on the streets, it is not less certain that there are twelve thousand paupers in the town; so great a number need hardly excite surprise, if it be recollected that even the necessities of life are much dearer than in other parts of Germany. The expenses of the work-houses and hospitals are defrayed by the town. Asylums have been erected for lunatics, infirmaries for the sick, nay funds are set apart for the cure of different diseases, such as asphyxia, epidemics and contagious fevers. Of late years not only merchandise, houses and other kinds of property, but lives are insured. The life insurance company had in its coffers some years

ago, 1,200,000 marks banco, or L.200,000, to enable it to fulfil the engagements with the heirs of the insured, to pay the capitals or incomes stipulated in their contracts. BOOK
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The people in Hamburg are divided into three distinct Inhabit-
classes, the *real burgesses*, the *petty burgesses*, and foreign^{ants}
inhabitants.^f The real burgesses enjoy all the rights of
citizens; they only are eligible to the different offices in
the state; they are permitted the free exercise of every
sort of industry, and are even exempt from paying duty
on different goods that arrive in Hamburg vessels. The
petty burgesses can only exercise certain trades, and they
pay a yearly tax of one thaler for the protection which is
granted to them. The foreign inhabitants are also liable
to an annual contribution, but as soon as they are admit-
ted, they must pay fifty thalers, if they engage in com-
merce, and forty, if they are artisans. Strangers cannot
acquire property either within the town or territory of
Hamburg, unless it be in the name of a burgess.

The Jews do not enjoy the right of citizens, but they<sup>Jews, rights
of citizens.</sup> may possess houses in certain parts of the town. Although
the rights of citizens are not hereditary, the sons of real
burgesses are entitled to some privileges, and they do
not pay so great a sum as others for their admission. It
was not before the year 1814, that the Christians who did
not embrace the Augsburg confession, were allowed to be-
come burgesses, or to hold offices in the state; they are
still excluded from the council.

The form of government is, as Stein calls it, *Aristo-de-*<sup>Govern-
ment.</sup> *mocratic*, the sovereignty is vested in the council and in
the burgesses; the former consists of thirty-six members,
amongst them are included three mayors and eleven ma-
gistrates. The citizens are represented by deputies, le-
gally elected, and by hereditary burgesses. The last are
the most wealthy and influential of the inhabitants.

Although Hamburg is a fortified town, the military es-<sup>Military
force.</sup> tablishment is not great; the contingent to the confederation

^f See Stein's Geography.

BOOK has been limited to thirteen hundred men, and a numerous
XXIV. national guard serves to defend the town and territory, Magistrates, clergymen, schoolmasters, physicians and surgeons are exempt from the military service, these are the only exceptions, all the other men in Hamburg, from the age of twenty to forty-six, must enter the national guard.

Revenue. The revenues collected in the town and territory, vary from twelve to fifteen millions of florins. Of all the imposts established by the French government, the stamps and excise are only continued; these indirect contributions, though very moderate, yield on an average a monthly revenue of sixty thousand marks; government may thus, without burdening the people, pay the interest of a national debt, which amounted in 1810, to fifty-two millions of marks.

Industry. Many branches of industry are carried on in Hamburg; there were a few years ago forty sugar works, ten print fields, which furnished employment to fifteen hundred workmen, twenty-five wire mills, many leather and soap works, a hundred velvet and silk looms, and several manufactories of gold and silver lace, as well as of fine and coarse linen. The dried meat, known by the name of Hamburg beef, which forms a great article of exportation, is cured within its walls. More than twenty copper and brass foundries are situated in its territory. But the produce of its manufacturing industry, however great, becomes insignificant, when compared with its foreign trade.

Foreign trade. It possesses more than two hundred ships, which carry its merchandise to the ports of neighbouring nations, and even to Portugal. It often sends considerable fleets to the whale fisheries; and the number of vessels that enter or leave its harbour every year, amounts to more than twelve hundred. It carries on a very great trade in colonial produce; the reader may form some notion of its importance from the documents contained in the table at the end of this chapter. It is one of the greatest marts for tea and coffee of any town in Europe; the inhabitants

themselves consumed an immense quantity, it has been ascertained to exceed 10,000,000 pounds, so that the proportion for every individual, amounts to more than ninety pounds; it may be easily supposed, what is really the case, that the people take tea or coffee almost every hour in the day. The town has been better fortified on the side of the Port-land than towards the sea. A basin, formed by a branch of the Elbe, serves as a place of anchorage for fresh water boats, and a road twenty feet in depth for larger vessels; the goods and merchandise are thus transported into the different store-houses, along the canals, which traverse the old town. Although a dike has been built along the river, Hamburg has been more than once inundated; in the year 1771, the waters broke through their barrier, and covered a great part of the neighbourhood and almost all the town; in 1790, the waters of the Elbe rose more than twenty feet in the course of a single night.

Hamburg and its territory form a surface of a hundred Territory. and two square miles; in the territory are situated a small town, two burghs, thirteen villages and fifty hamlets, their population may be equal to 20,000 souls.

The territory of Lubeck is enclosed by the duchy of Lubeck. Oldenburg; it contains two towns, and seventy-nine villages and hamlets. The extent of surface does not exceed ninety square miles, and the population amounts to forty-three thousand individuals, but of that number twenty-six thousand are the inhabitants of Lubeck or the capital. It is situated at the confluence of three rivers, the Trave, the Wackenitz and the Stecknitz, which, at the distance of three leagues, throw themselves into a gulf, that bears the name of the town.

Few cities are more advantageously situated than Lubeck, for the Baltic trade. Built in the twelfth century by the emperor Conrad the third, or as others affirm, by Godeschale king of the Herules or Obotriti, in the year 1066, it became a century afterwards, the seat of a diocess, which before that time had been established at Oldenburg. It was several times destroyed by the Danes, and as often

BOOK rebuilt by its inhabitants. Devastated by the assaults to
CXXIV. which it was exposed from barbarous neighbours, it put itself, at the beginning of the thirteenth century, under the protection of Frederick the second, who declared it a free and imperial city. It entered at a later period into the number of Hanseatic towns, and maintained for a long time a considerable influence in the affairs of the league. But in 1810, it was united to the French empire, and became the metropolis of a division in the mouths of the Elbe; its privileges as a free town were restored three years afterwards.

Govern-
ment,

The government is vested in a supreme council, composed of four mayors and sixteen counsellors; they are chosen from the most influential inhabitants. The spirit of independence, the result of commerce, may perhaps have prompted the people to embrace the Augsburg confession at the commencement of the reformation; but it is rather commercial rivalry than concern about religion, which has contributed to the persecution of the Jews in Lubeck, and the same intolerance, far from being diminished by the advances made in knowledge, appears to have gained ground in later times. According to a decree of the senate in 1816, all those who professed judaism, were obliged to quit the town within a very short period; they had the choice of settling in the village of Moisling about two leagues distant, or of leaving the territory.

The Town. Lubeck is encompassed with ramparts; the streets, though steep, are straight, clean and well built. The edifices most worthy of notice are the cathedral, which contains several articles of antiquity, the church of St. Mary, the townhouse in which may be seen the celebrated Hanseatic hall, the council room, adorned with fine paintings, and the hall of the treasury; the arsenal and the exchange are nowise remarkable.

Useful in-
stitutions,
places of
education,
&c.

Many useful institutions have been founded in the town; the most important are several elementary schools, a gymnasium, different boarding houses, two commercial seminaries; a school of surgery, a drawing academy for

artisans, and another for the higher classes. Societies BOOK CXXIV. have been established for the suppression of mendicity, and the relief of the indigent; there are besides a house of correction, and an orphan hospital.

The revenues of the state were, estimated a few years Revenues. ago, at more than a million of florins, and half that sum, at least, was derived from the town. A tax which still subsists, was imposed on every citizen in 1816, to form a fund for the extinction of the public debt.

The military force consists of a national guard, divided Military force. into fifteen companies, and a contingent of six hundred men to the Germanic confederation.

The manufactures and different articles made at Lubeck, Manufactures. are tobacco, sugar, leather, soap and silk, cotton stuffs, coarse and fine linen, cloth, gold and silver lace, iron, and copper wire, and lastly sail cloth and merchant vessels. The commerce consists principally in colonial produce, in exportations of grain, and importations of different products from Sweden, Russia, France, Holland and England.

Large vessels arrive at Travemunde, a small fortified Travemunde. town situated at the mouth of the Trave on the Baltic sea. It carries on a great trade with Lubeck, and many strangers frequent it, on account of its baths. Its watch-tower commands an extensive view, which reaches on one side to a great distance along the sea, and on the other, beyond the territory of Lubeck.

Ancient Hanseatic towns, such as Bremen, Hamburg, Frankfort on the Maine. and Lubeck, seemed to have acquired the right of claiming their independence, at the time when the political divisions of Germany were determined by congress. As their independence was lost, merely because they had been incorporated in the French empire, it was thought equitable by the European diplomatists, that they should be restored to their ancient privileges after the fall of the conqueror. Besides, their situation at the extremity of Germany was likely to remove the fear of other states imitating their example. But Frankfort is different from the rest, and more interesting than any of them, inasmuch as it forms

BOOK CXXIV. a small republic, almost in the centre of the Germanic confederation. It became independent at a time, when rulers sanctioned reluctantly any institutions in which liberty was admitted as a right, and not as a concession, revocable according to circumstances. It is true that Frankfort dates its freedom from as remote a period as the other towns that have been last described, but it was not considered a conquest of Napoleon, it was not united to France, on the contrary, it had continued since 1806, the capital of a great dutchy, governed by a sovereign primate. It was declared a free town in 1815. It might have become the most valuable possession of a state in the confederation, had it not excited the covetousness of neighbouring principalities, such as Nassau, Hesse-Darmstadt and electoral Hesse, in the midst of which its territory is enclosed. It was for these reasons, not from any consideration of equity or justice, that it gained an independence, to which its present commercial importance must be principally ascribed.

Territory of Frankfort.

The extent of the territory may be equal to five German or sixty English square miles; it contains besides the capital, two burghs and five villages. According to the mean term of the different numbers, assigned by German geographers, the population cannot be estimated at less than sixty-thousand.* The town alone contains more than forty-five thousand inhabitants; the catholics amount to five or six thousand, the reformists or calvinists to two thousand, the Jews to five thousand, the rest adhere to the Augsburg confession.

Monuments.

Frankfort, notwithstanding its monuments, palaces and well-built houses, is not considered a fine town. The streets are for the most part gloomy, narrow and crooked. The cathedral or the church of St. Bartholomew, a curious and ancient edifice, in which several emperors have been crowned, is supposed to have been built by Pepin or perhaps by Lewis the Pious, king of Germany, who died at Frankfort

* Hassel makes the population amount to fifty-two thousand, and Stein to seventy thousand souls.

in the year 876. The golden bull of the emperor Charles the Fourth, is preserved in the Rœmer or townhouse; it is written on forty-three pages of old parchment, and was exhibited for a long time among the curiosities of Paris. The other buildings are the *Saalhoff* or palace of Lewis the Debonnaire, which has been disfigured by modern additions, the palace of the Teutonic order, and the one that belonged to the prince of La Tour and Taxis; besides these, may be mentioned the theatre, and the bridge on the Maine, which commands a magnificent view, and is more than four hundred feet in length.

The name of *Frankfurt* or *Frankenfurt*^h appears to strengthen the French tradition that the Franks assembled there in the fifth century, and passed from it into Gaul. It was called a town, when Charlemagne enlarged it, after having defeated the Saxons under its walls. The suburbs on the left bank of the Maine, which separates it from Frankfort, retains its ancient name of *Saxenhausen*, hence it may be inferred that it was in early times inhabited by that people.

Origin of its name.

Frankfort distinguished itself by its zeal in the cause of the reformation; such was the violence of the different parties, that religious opinions occasioned insurrections and revolts until the most of the inhabitants embraced the notions of Luther; it acted too an important part in the league of Smalcalden.

Reformation.

It is to a more extensive commerce, that the great number of modern buildings must be chiefly attributed, which if they go on increasing in the same proportion, Frankfort may be soon little inferior to the finest towns in Germany. The new quarters and quay of Wollgraben have been much embellished; they are every day becoming larger, and are likely ere long to form the most important part of the town.

Quarters of Wollgraben.

Frankfort differs from Hamburg, in as much as many persons among the wealthy classes cultivate the arts and

Useful establishments.

^h Furt signifies a ford or passage.

BOOK CXXIV. sciences. It would be foreign to our purpose to enumerate the galleries of paintings, the valuable collections of engravings and antiquities, belonging to different individuals, but the public institutions are creditable to the republic. There are three gymnasia, a school of medicine, two of drawing, one of painting and engraving, a mathematical seminary and several schools of art. The mount of piety was rather a calamity than a benefit to the people, the town has established in its stead, a fund destined for the assistance of petty merchants and artisans in carrying on their commerce and industry. The public library contains more than a hundred thousand volumes, besides several books and a parchment bible printed by Faust in the year 1462. A valuable collection of medals is attached to the same library.

Government.

According to the constitution of 1816, the sovereignty is vested in all the citizens, who are born in Frankfort or within its territory. The senate cannot confer the rights of citizens on strangers, who have resided ten years in the town, if they do not possess an independent fortune. The three branches of government are the senate, the legislative body and the deputies elected by the burgesses. The legislative body consists of twenty senators, as many members of the permanent deputation and forty-five burgesses, nominated by the citizens. No person can be elected before the age of thirty years, and if any refuse the office of deputy, they may be deprived of their rights and privileges as citizens.

Religion.

The inhabitants of Frankfort are divided into three great Christian communities, which under the superintendence of the senate, provide separately for the maintenance of their clergy, churches and schools. But it cannot be remarked without exciting surprise, that in the nineteenth century both at Hamburg and at Frankfort, wise and enlightened rulers entertain such prejudices against the Jews, as serve to recal the ignorance and superstition of the middle ages. If it be owing to commercial jealousy that the influential men of Frankfort have refused the Jews all the rights and

privileges of citizens, the measure is not less impolitic than unjust. The Jews are the only inhabitants of a separate quarter, they are permitted to learn and to exercise certain trades, but the reader may have some difficulty in believing that according to a decision of the legislative body in 1817, not more than fifteen Jewish marriages are allowed to take place in the course of a year, within the town and territory.^f

The revenue of Frankfort amounts to eighty thousand florins, and the public debt to three hundred thousand. The military force consists of a national guard and four hundred and seventy-nine men,—the contingent to the confederation.

Silk, linen, cotton and woollen stuffs may be mentioned among the manufactures; the other articles are tobacco, playing cards, types, wax and porcelain which is little inferior to that of Dresden. But its trade with Germany forms the principal source of its wealth. The continual commercial intercourse which it holds with that country, is facilitated by its position, and by two navigable rivers, the Rhine and the Main. The two Frankfort fairs, the one at Easter, the other in September, bring together more than sixteen hundred merchants from different parts of Europe.

The people boast that Charles the Bald was born in the town, that the diets of the confederation are still held there; but in the opinion of some, it possesses better claims to celebrity, it gave birth to Goëthe, and the first German gazette was published within its walls.

^f See Stein's Geography.

. TABLES.

Commerce of Bremen in 1825.

Nine hundred and fourteen merchant vessels entered the port of Bremen.

Nations.	Number of Vessels.
United States	54
South American	11
West Indies	25
English	94
French	36
Portuguese	6
Spanish	5
Russian	44
Swedish and Norwegian	55
Hamburg	69
Lubec	13
Mecklenburg	11
Prussian	28
Dutch	10
Hanoverian	53
Oldenburg	64

Bremish vessels and others belonging to different states
and principalities in the confederation 336

Five whale ships sailed from Bremen to Greenland in the same year.

*Tables of the Grain Exported From Hamburg, from the
Year 1815 to 1825, inclusive.*

Years.	By Sea.			Into the Interior.		
	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.	Wheat. Quarters.	Rye. Quarters.	Barley. Quarters.
1816	30,484	42,772	9,392	11,028	33,639	4,659
1817	46,651	25,677	4,962	12,712	32,549	3,852
1818	153,897	14,954	48,715	13,676	48,864	8,600
1819	37,794	2,208	60,452	14,384	35,908	10,712
1820	68,468	874	4,634	17,063	11,270	4,641
1821	20,001	414	5,485	17,082	8,865	4,269
1822	8,700	1,998	3,074	12,885	9,893	7,123
1823	36,291	8,346	6,080	15,042	12,260	4,248
1824	15,014	4,393	36,315	15,943	9,996	11,678
1825	65,329	2,863	112,217	27,403	18,968	14,686
Total.	482,629	104,499	291,326	157,218	222,212	74,468

Oats. Quarters.	Peas. Quarters.	Beans. Quarters.	Malt. Quarters.	Buck wheat. Quarters.	Linseed. Quarters.	Rape. Quarters.	Vetches. Quarters.
20,915	954	1,873	1,455	195	552	12,433	
30,683	1,153	1,630	1,592	654	911	3,505	
33,415	2,858	3,774	3,388	302		5,752	110
11,613	1,076	2,267	2,235	98		5,505	207
28,575	648	1,083	1,748	844	115	3,210	1,094
13,625	508	725	1,963	4,991		6,492	358
26,927	637	1,279	2,274	378	5	15,474	46
25,866	525	600	1,897	1,969	221	19,163	172
37,820	974	2,644	2,339	2,776	154	20,636	4,963
17,348	4,777	2,074	2,480	1,624	38	9,624	3,564
246,487	14,110	17,949	21,371	13,831	1,176	101,794	10,514

Sugars imported from the year 1821 to 1825 inclusive.^k

Years.	
1821,	91,849,490
1822,	64,692,640
1823,	74,887,000
1824,	75,577,080
1825,	79,790,380

Coffee.

Years.	Imported.	Exported or consumed.
1821,	21,591,160	22,000,000 pounds. ^l
1822,	28,357,940	26,000,000
1823,	26,535,100	25,000,000
1824,	38,536,720	35,000,000
1825,	34,051,240	34,000,000

Variations in the price of Coffee from the year 1821 to 1825, inclusive.^m

Years.	Shillings Banco.
1821,	from 13½ to 14 the pound.
1822,	from 11½ to 12

^k A great quantity of sugar arrives at Hamburg from Brazil and the Havannah; the same article is imported from the United States, England, France and Holland.

It is principally refined sugar, that enters Hamburg, and notwithstanding the competition, which it has to maintain with England, it exports annually more than 65,000,000 pounds of refined sugar.

^l The most of the coffee imported into Hamburg, comes directly from Havannah, Saint Domingo and Brazil; the rest is brought from the United States.

^m It may be seen from the above table, that the price of coffee has decreased every year from 1821 to 1825.

BOOK CXXIV.	Years.	Shillings Banco.
		from 11 to 11½
	1823,	from 8½ to 8½
	1824,	from 6¼ to 6¼
	1825,	

Indigo imported.^a

Year.	
1825,	{ Cases, 4,341 or 975,000 pounds. Bags, 286 or 18,000

Cotton Imported.^a

Year.	
1825,	Bales 16,600 or 6,640,000 pounds.

Ships of different Nations that have entered Hamburg.

Year.		
1824,	Vessels from North America	41
	from South America	130
	from different parts of the West Indies	72
	from England	645
	Total	1819
1825,	Vessels from North America	39
	from South America	125
	from the West Indies	79
	from England	757

Merchant Ships belonging to the Port of Lubeck.

Lubeck possesses about 79 trading vessels.
 Number that enters its harbours annually, about 800

^a Indigo is by no means an important article in the trade of Hamburg; indeed Hamburg and several other states are wholly dependent for their supply on the discretion of England. Indigo in *cases* comes from the East Indies, indigo in *bags* from the West Indies.

^a Although a great quantity of cotton is consumed in Germany, very little is imported into Hamburg; it receives it from the United States, Columbia and different ports in America, Egypt, the Levant, India, and also from different mercantile houses in Italy.

^a Most of the English vessels carry ballast to Hamburg, and return with cargoes to England, a proof that many articles from Hamburg, are destined for the English markets.

BOOK CXXV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Ninth Section.—Description of Bohemia.

To complete the description of Germany, some account may be given of the different possessions of the Austrian monarchy, situated in that country. Hungary and its dependencies have already been described, it is unnecessary to mention them more fully, but care must be taken not to confound provinces which, from the manners, language and origin of the inhabitants, should be considered separately; for as to Austria, the geographer observes in a much smaller compass, the same confusion, the same heterogenous parts as in the vast empire of Russia. BOOK CXXV.

Bohemia, which is now to be described, is a country, Kingdom both in its physical and political geography, wholly distinct of Bohemia. from the territories that surround it. It is equal in superficial extent to nearly nine hundred and fifty-three German or eleven thousand four hundred and thirty-six English square miles.

Limited by Bavaria, Saxony and Prussian Silesia, it is encompassed by mountainous chains, that form a natural basin, once filled by a Caspian sea, in the depths of which were deposited the calcareous rocks that shall be afterwards mentioned. The fact that all the mountains or the contour of the basin, become gradually lower as they approach the centre of the country, serves at first view to strengthen the belief concerning the ancient existence of Ancient Caspian Sea.

BOOK such a sea. The greatest declivities are situated in the most
CXXV. northern part of the basin; thus the Elbe, which crosses that portion of the country, is enlarged by all the streams that descend from the mountains, and throw themselves, either into its channel, or into the Moldau, which unites with it. The outlet through which the Elbe leaves Bohemia, and enters the North sea, appears to be the same as the one, by which the ancient Caspian mingled its waters with the ocean. Part of the sands that now cover the Prussian provinces of Magdeburg, Brandenburg, Mecklenburg and Hanover, may probably be attributed to the irruptions of the same sea. These hypotheses, founded on facts, are intimately connected with the most interesting departments of physical geography.

Mountains. Four principal chains enclose the basin: the Böhmer-Wald or Bohemian forest stretches from south-east to north-west, and joins the Ertz-Gebirge; these extend from south-west to north-east, and meet the Riesen-Gebirge; the latter follow a contrary direction, and unite with the Mährisches-Gebirge or Moravian mountains which, passing from north-east to south-west, terminate at the extremity of the Böhmer-Wald. The chains, as some geographers have remarked, form an irregular four-sided figure. Bohemia, by being thus enclosed, is rendered an isolated country in the middle of Europe; the same circumstance, it may be readily inferred, has had some influence on the civilization and political constitution of its inhabitants. The lowest mountains are those which extending from north-east to south-west and to south, separate Bohemia from Moravia and Lower Austria. The name of a small chain, the Teufels-Gebirge or Devil's mountains, at the southern-extremity of the Böhmer-Wald, near the sources of the Moldau, seems to be connected with the tradition of an idolatrous worship.

Rocks and soil. The Böhmer-Wald is a primitive chain, composed of granite, gneiss, micaceous schistus, syenite, and lastly of argillaceous schistus and different rocks belonging to the

same epoch. The same substances are observed on the south, near the town of Krumau, on the banks of the Moldau, and also along the Ertz-Gebirge, which have been already mentioned in the account of Saxony. The central mountains of Bohemia, that extend along the right bank of the Elbe, and join the Rieser-Gebirge, are less remarkable for their height than their rounded summits and sides, proofs that the rocks which compose them, are of igneous origin. The last declivities terminate at some leagues to the north of Bunzlau, and along the whole range are observed sandstone, basalts and other substances that appear to have been modified by the action of subterranean fire.

They are encompassed by calcareous deposits, abundant with fossil shells; thus, the basin has been filled by volcanoes emitting torrents of lava in the depths of the sea. The same phenomena as those observed in the Boëmer-Wald are exhibited on the side of the Riesen-Gebirge towards Bohemia, but near their extremity, sandstone and calcareous rocks are more frequent, they are arranged in parallel strata. Sandstone of a very soft texture, and which decays easily, abounds in the Moravian mountains, particularly towards the north; it assumes the most singular forms, and at a distance deceives the stranger, who imagines he sees turrets and villages, where no habitations are to be found. If the traveller descends these mountains, the sides of which are covered with forests, he may observe throughout the whole basin of Bohemia, calcareous rocks, that were deposited at the time it was filled with the sea. The limestone is in many places covered with other deposits; rocks consisting chiefly of amphibole, and which hold an intermediate place between the primitive and secondary formations, are situated in the western part of the basin, in the neighbourhood of Plan. Granite and argillaceous schistus are not less common near Tein; alluvial deposits containing fossil wood and iron ore, which yields nearly sixty-two parts of metal, may be observed in the vicinity of Pagrad, to the south of Eger.

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These transition rocks rest on micaceous schistus, and similar arrangements are remarked near Prague, between Marienbaden and Ogerlochin. The Commerberg, a volcanic cone, not far from Eger, is covered with lava, and other heights of the same kind extend at different distances to Carlsbad.^a Traces of volcanoes are observable near Tœplitz; and a sort of red porphyry, from which many mineral springs take their rise. Horizontal layers of limestone mixed with marl rest on the porphyry, and its great inclination in some places may probably have been the effect of sudden and violent shocks. Lastly, the Mittel-Gebirge or central chain of the country, which rises above the course of the Elbe, was, according to a German geologist,^b the centre of the volcanic phenomena, that have left so many traces on the southern sides of the Ertz-Gebirge, where basalts and other rocks of an igneous origin are seen in every direction.

**Earth-
quakes.**

Although the volcanoes in Bohemia belong to that class which burned before the period, that the earth was inhabited by man, the country is subject to shocks, occasioned by subterranean fires. Several took place in the month of January 1824, on the Ertz-Gebirge and in the districts of Eger and Ellbogen. Their direction was from north to south, south-west and south-east; they were accompanied in some places with a noise resembling thunder, in others many springs were dried.^c

**Mineral
springs.**

A country in which the rocks are so various, and the volcanic remains so numerous, abounds generally with mineral springs, at least Bohemia forms no exception to the rule. Such as are most resorted to, are situated in the northern districts; it may suffice to give the reader some notion of their number and celebrity, to mention the springs of Sedlitz and Satzkamen in the district of Kaurzin, those of Strobnitz in Bechin, the alkaline springs of Bilin, Carls-

^a Goethe, Natur-wissenschaft.

^b Leonhard, Zeitschrift für mineralogie,

^c See the observation published by M. Hailaschka. Archiv. für die gesamte natur-lehre, tome I. page 320.

bad and Tœplitz, the sources in Bechin near Trautnau, the baths of Kleinkučhel and Tetschen in the districts of Beraun and Leitmeritz, and lastly, the ferruginous springs of Eger, BOOK
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The two principal feeders of the Elbe are the Moldau Rivers, and the Eger; the first crosses Bohemia from its northern extremity to Melnik; the length of its course is more than a hundred and thirty-five miles. The declivity from the Teufel-Gebirge to Prague, a distance of nearly ninety miles, is about two hundred and sixty-nine feet. The Eger which rises in the Fichtel-Gebirge, near their junction with the Bœhmer-Wald, and throws itself into the Elbe at Theresienstadt, has a less rapid course, for the declivity does not exceed a hundred and fifty-eight feet in a distance of seventy-nine miles.^d

Several extensive lakes are situated in the country, the largest are those of Teschmitz in the district of Klattau, Polkenstein on the mountains of the same name, and Kummer in the district of Saatz. But the number of marshes is much greater, there were not fewer in 1786, than twenty thousand, and according to the calculations that were then made in order to regulate the contributions, their surface was not less than a hundred and thirty-two thousand seven hundred acres; draining, however, has since been generally practised, and their number has of consequence been considerably reduced. The marsh of Ezeperka near Pardubitz is perhaps the most extensive, the numerous islands it encompasses, are covered with trees. Other marshes situated in different parts of the kingdom, are formed by the annual inundations of rivers, or by the waters which descend from the mountains into low vallies, but as none of them are large, it is unnecessary to describe them.

The climate of Bohemia is modified by the nature of the country, its lofty mountains, extensive plains and deep vallies. It is temperate in the central districts and in the frontiers on the south-west, but the mountains covered with

^d Umriss einer geographisch-statistischen Schilderung des Koenigreichs Bœhmer, by J. M. Leichtenstern.

BOOK CXXV. forests have an influence on the temperature to a considerable distance from their sides. The variation of Reaumur's thermometer at Prague, gives the annual mean term of $7^{\circ} 7'$. It has been proved by registers kept in the observatory at the same town, that the greatest heat was from 23° to 24° of Reaumur, and the greatest cold, about 16° below zero. The thermometrical variations at Eger, the remotest part of the western frontier, indicate a mean term of $7^{\circ} 4'$, while at Krumau near the southern extremity, it is not greater than $6^{\circ} 9'$.

Winds. The prevalent winds in Bohemia blow from south-east and south-west. The east and north-east winds are almost always accompanied with rain, but the north, north-west, and south-west winds are sure signs of dry weather. The quantity of rain that falls yearly, amounts to eighteen or nineteen inches, the evaporation that takes place in the shade, to fourteen. The number of rainy days, observed in a series of eighteen years, was annually equal on an average, to ninety; the proportion that subsisted between days of calm and cloudless weather, and those in which the sky was partly covered with clouds or mists, was as one to five^c.

Ancient inhabitants. No accurate information can be obtained concerning the ancient people that inhabited Bohemia; it is known however that they were subdued, and in a great measure destroyed by the Boii, who under the command of Sigovessus, settled in the country about six centuries before the Christian era. Strabo, Pliny, and other writers make mention of the same people, from whom the present name of Bohemia is derived.

Boii. The Boii experienced for a long period all the vicissitudes of war; their history is confined to migrations, victories and defeats,—the results of battles with their neighbours. Ancient writers make mention of them possessing at one time the country beyond the Danube, in other words, the basin of Bohemia, at another time, the lands

^c See Liechtenstern's Essay, cited above.

between the Danube and the Drave, lastly, Thrace and Illyria. Some degree of confusion, therefore, naturally arises as to the countries which they occupied; hence Peloutier supposes that they all issued from Gaul or Italy. Mentelle appears to be the only author, who has thrown any light on the migrations of the Boii; according to that writer, they accompanied Belovesus, who marched at the head of several barbarous tribes, in his expedition into Italy. These Boii were then settled on the northern declivities of the Apennines in the present territory of Bologna, and in all probability, they were only a colony that separated from their countrymen in Bohemia. After the fruitless attempt of Belovesus, the Boii were repulsed by the Romans, and forced to retreat to the Danube, near the frontiers of Illyria; subdued and nearly annihilated by the Getæ, the country to which they had migrated, remained desert, hence Strabo calls it the desert of the Boii.^f But the great body of the people, who inhabited the mountains in Bohemia, were not long secure from the attacks of their neighbours. About two hundred and eighty years before the birth of our Saviour, the Cimbri tried more than once to subdue them, and failed as often in the attempt. It was not until thirty or forty years after the vulgar era, that the Marcomani defeated them, and took possession of their territory. The Boii found a new country in the plains watered by the Danube, that form at present part of Bavaria. It is on that account that Tacitus says, although the inhabitants are changed, the name of Bohemia, which still remains, serves to perpetuate the remembrance of their ancient country.^g Although afterwards driven from their territory by the Marcomani, they held no mean reputation in Germany; they joined the Helvetii, and invaded Gaul, while the Edui resisted Cæsar; the Roman general, after the conquest of the latter, might have com-

^f Strabo, book VII. chap. II. section 5.

^g Manet adhuc Boihemi nomen, significatque loci veterem memoriam, quamvis cultoribus mutatis. Tacitus, de Moribus Germanorum, section 28.

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pelled them to seek for shelter in the Hercynian forest, but in consideration of their valour and courage, he made over to them part of their lands. Thus, it appears from these details, that the Boii have several times changed their country; but it must not be inferred that their different possessions were inhabited by five distinct people of the same name; on the contrary, it was the same people, who at different epochs settled in five different countries.

Marcomani.

According to Tacitus, the Marcomani were the most powerful people of any in the territories between the Danube and the Hercynian forest; the fact that they conquered Bohemia, may confirm the opinion of the historian. They were governed by kings, chosen from the most illustrious families of their nation, but after the reign of Augustus, the Romans placed foreign rulers over them.

Rome never assisted them with her arms, but corrupted them with gold and silver.^h Maroboduus is of all the native princes, the one most frequently mentioned in the annals of Tacitus. Strabo informs us that after having passed his youth at Rome under the protection of Augustus, he was called to govern his countrymen. The commencement of his reign was prosperous; he led the Marcomani to the conquest of Bohemia, and made himself master of the country inhabited by the Boii. He subdued several neighbouring states, and enriched himself with their spoils. He possessed great influence over a portion of Germany, and formed a league, consisting of the Hermunduri, Quadi, Semnones, Longobardi and other states, against Hermann or Arminius, who had become formidable after having defeated the legions of Varus. But in this contest Maroboduus was unsuccessful; in vain he implored the assistance of the Romans, they saw with secret joy, the enemies who had resisted their yoke, weakened by divisions amongst themselves. Abandoned by his allies, without authority over his people, Maroboduus had no other resource than to implore the protection of Ger-

^h Tacitus de Moribus Germanorum.

manicus, who granted him an asylum in Italy, where he BOOK
past the rest of his days. CXXV.

The descendants of the Marcomani, at the time when Slavi. the Roman power began to decline, were invaded and compelled to give up their country to different nations, whose names were hardly known to the Romans. These nations or different Slavonic people migrated from Poland, and the north of Hungary.

The time that they first invaded Bohemia is uncertain, indeed little is known of their history before the sixth century. They were called *Tchekhes* or *Czechs* by the western Slavi, a name, which in their language signifies the *First*, probably because the country they inhabited, was nearest to Germany. Their government was at first republican, but lest they should be expelled from Bohemia, by the Avarians and the Huns, they chose a king, who, if tradition can be believed, was Samo, a Franconian merchant, a man of wisdom and courage; he governed them for a number of years, and freed them from the yoke of the Avarians. A regency was appointed at his death, and it continued until *Krock* was elected; that prince was succeeded by his daughter *Libussa*, surnamed the magician, who reigned with *Przemysl* her husband, between the years 722 and 745. The sovereignty was hereditary for several generations; but the early part of the Bohemian history is involved in obscurity.

Little is known concerning it, before the middle of the ninth century; until that period they continued in idolatry, and had to oppose at the same time, the attacks of the Germans, and the sermons of the monks, who were continually sent from Rome. Fourteen princes and the great duke Borziwoy were baptized in the year 894, and Prague was erected into a diocese in 972.

The dignity of great duke was elective until the mid- Historical
dle of the eleventh century. Brzetislaw was the first, who recollections.
passed a law in the year 1053, making the succession hereditary, but the law did not continue in force, long after the death of the prince. Otho the first, conquered

BOOK CXXV. Bohemia, and added it to the empire in 1086. Henry the fifth conferred on duke Brzetislaw the second, the title of king in 1086, and since that period the monarchy was elective.

Progress of
civilization.

The country was much improved by the German colonists that settled during the ninth century; for Bohemia, isolated from other nations, did not emerge from barbarism, before the introduction of Christianity, which by opening communications with Rome, prepared the way for the civilization of the Slavi. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, Ottocar encouraged German workmen and artists of every kind; under the same prince, industry was diffused in the towns, and commerce freed from its shackles. Order and tranquillity were maintained, and written laws were kept in the principal cities. His successor Ottocar the second, though called to the throne of Austria, extended his power not only over Bohemia, but a part of Silesia, Poland and Prussia. Possessing the same views, he continued the work of his father, protected the arts and sciences, and encouraged the introduction of the German language, as the great means of enlightening his subjects. The manners and habits of the people had undergone great changes about the commencement of the fourteenth century, by that time the laws were written in German. Prague, which was one of the most important cities in Germany, became the seat of the arts and sciences.

The emperor Charles the fourth had been elected king of Bohemia, and the states general of the kingdom declared the monarchy hereditary in his family. It was to the same prince that the capital is indebted for its university. Wenceslas, his son and successor reformed the laws, and substituted the national language in the different courts. John Huss and Jerome of Prague, flourished in the same reign; but the inhabitants were too ignorant to appreciate their wise and enlightened views concerning religious reform, their virtues, talent and noble disinterestedness.

These apostles of the reformation appeared in the world at too early a period; they were not understood, their characters were calumniated. Intriguing persons made use of their own expressions to excite the civil war; that may have rendered Ziska, the brave and disinterested chief, illustrious, but served only to protract the existence of abuses, which good men wished to see abolished. The monarchy became elective after the death of Wenceslas. * BOOK
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Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, obtained the sovereignty in 1426; his reign forms an epoch, not only because hereditary succession was established in his family, and the prerogatives of the Bohemian states, restricted in the election of their kings, but because in his time, great advances were made in knowledge. The prince endeavoured in vain to check the progress of civilization, it was in vain that he protected the Jesuits, and banished all those who were thought favourable to the reformation; neither was it attended with any advantage that censors prohibited books from being sold or published in his dominions, the impulse which had been given to the age could not be checked. The art of printing diffused among the wealthy classes, the writings of the ancients, and the most admired compositions, in every language. If many read the works of Erasmus, it was partly Ferdinand's fault, because he permitted a translation of them to be dedicated to himself; so far at least, he weakened unknowingly the effects of his system.

Ferdinand's successor, Maximilian the Second, followed a different line of policy: wise and tolerant, he granted in 1576, the benefits of religious liberty to all his subjects; but those who opposed freedom of conscience, failed not to excite obstinate fanatics;—violent controversies, reiterated complaints and exorbitant demands were the fruits of his liberal system. Matthias, who reigned next, thought fit to impose new restrictions on the protestants; in place of controversies, insurrections and revolts ensued. The thirty years' war added to the calamities of Bohemia; its population was diminished, its finances were exhausted. The

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effects of such evils might have continued for a long period, had not Maria Theresa appeared and repaired them. It is to that empress that Bohemia owes the abolition of slavery, and the freedom of industry; to the same celebrated woman the country is indebted for many wise laws, a better system of education, and different institutions which, although not to be compared with others that have ensured the prosperity of some European states, are not on that account the less beneficial to a people, whose rulers adopt slowly the improvements of enlightened governments.

Constitution.

According to the federative act of 1815, Bohemia forms a part of the Germanic confederation. As an integral portion of the Austrian monarchy, the succession is hereditary; it passes in a direct line to the different members of the reigning family. It appears from the fundamental law of the kingdom, that its political organization has not been changed, it depends on the same principles and enactments as in past ages. The king, at his coronation, takes an oath not to alienate the kingdom, to respect the constitution, protect the states, and preserve the privileges conferred on them by the emperors Ferdinand the Second, Ferdinand the Third and their successors, to maintain justice, and support the catholic religion with all his power.

**Political
Organization of the
kingdom.**

The states are divided into four classes; the clergy, nobles or lords, the petty nobility or knights, and, lastly, the royal towns. Their deputies form a general assembly, they meet as often as they are called together by the king, who appoints a president or lord commissioner over them. Their functions are very limited, they may deliberate on the means of executing what is proposed by the crown, but they cannot petition, much less can any proposition emanate from them without the authority of government or the royal commissioner who represents the government; for, according to M. Liechtenstern, the king of Bohemia is, as he has always been, absolute sovereign of the country. In these assemblies, the clergy, who by a law of Ferdinand, are superior to the other states, take an oath

of allegiance to the crown. They are represented by the archbishops and bishops, the great prior of the order of Malta, and the other prelates in the kingdom. The princes, dukes, counts and barons are the members of the high nobility, and the eight most important offices in the state must be filled by individuals belonging to that body.

Although the number of royal towns is not less than forty-eight, four only are entitled to elect deputies. These privileged towns are Prague, Budweis, Pilsen and Kuttenberg. Other towns are directly subject to the government; three of them, Saatz, Kommotau and Kaaden are represented. The protected cities, as they are called, form a third class; although they may be situated in siegnories, they are freed from seigneyrial burdens and imposts; most of the towns having mines in their territory, belong to the last class.

Although these distinctions exist, and others by which the peasants are divided into four classes,—the proprietors of land, the tenants of houses, farmers or tenants of land, and, lastly, the day labourers or workmen, the law acknowledges no difference in individuals, and the police watches with equal vigilance over them all.

The unjust laws that have been past against the Jews, Religion. show not only the striking difference between the Austrian government and the enlightened governments of Europe, but keep up in the minds of the Bohemians, prejudices as inveterate against the same people as those that existed in the dark ages. The hatred and contempt in which the lower orders of Christians in different nations hold the Jews, may be explained by those who know how difficult it is to eradicate false opinions, strengthened by religious belief. But it is not so easy to explain why those who are called to the government of the state, participate in the same errors. The degraded state of the Jews in Bohemia must be imputed to the government under which they live; if they are the worthless and despicable set of people they are supposed to be, the necessity of reclaiming them seems to be more urgent. But the Jews cannot be reformed.

BOOK cannot be made useful members of the community, if they
CXXXV. are suffered to remain in ignorance, if they are rendered
indifferent as to character, and if the law is made the echo
of the popular prejudices against them.

Moral and
political
state of the
Jews.

Some necessary consequences of the Austrian policy in this respect, may be shortly mentioned. All agree that the Jews in Bohemia have made no advances in civilization for more than half a century. They observe strictly the fundamental principles of a religion that separates them from other nations. Many refuse to drink out of the glass that a Christian has used ; they abstain from wine on their journeys, if none can be got which has been put into casks or bottles by their brethren ; the flesh of every animal slain by a Christian is considered unclean.

It ought, on the other hand, to be recollected, that the Christians in Bohemia have committed flagrant acts of injustice against the Jews ; it has been determined more than once to banish them the kingdom ; but the sentence was as often averted by exorbitant sums of money, together with presents made to men in power. A law has been past since 1817, the effect of which is to prevent their increase, for according to the enactment, no woman can marry before the age of eighteen, and no man before that of twenty-two. If any enter into wedlock at an earlier period, such marriages are null, and the rabbis that celebrate them are banished. Can it be supposed, after the statement of these facts, that the Jews in Bohemia enjoy the privileges of citizens, that their property and wealth are secure ? Government has shown its regard for them by putting them without the pale of ordinary legislation. If two persons are prevented from marrying because the one is seventeen and the other twenty-one years of age, what else is it than to encourage immorality and adultery ? It is by such means that profligacy and seduction may perhaps become common among a people who, whatever their faults may be, are an example to Christians for conjugal fidelity.

The author from whom these details have partly been

taken,¹ commends the oppressive measures of the Austrian government against the Jews, a proof that great acquisitions are not incompatible with unfounded prejudice. If Mr. Liechtenstern may be believed, the Jews cannot be enlightened by education, they are men altogether destitute of generous sentiments. It was rightly maintained thirty years ago, continues the same author, that the number of Jews was a great evil; they have always been the objects of popular hatred, but their gradual increase may render vain both the vigilance of the police and the *wise laws* that have been past against them. The facts on which M. Liechtenstern founds his opinion shall be afterwards examined; certainly much weight cannot be attached to them, if they be confined to the pretended crime of usury, or the commercial superiority which distinguishes the Jews, and excites the nation against them.

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Before the edict of Joseph the Second was passed, it Protestants. might have been inferred from the rigour with which* as many were punished as were suspected of being protestants, that the whole nation was devoted to the church of Rome. But no sooner was liberty of conscience proclaimed,* than whole towns became suddenly Lutheran. It must be confessed, that the protestants of almost every denomination have since that time been protected by government, still they are not very numerous, the proportion between them and the catholics is nearly as one to thirty-three. Thus, notwithstanding the edict of Joseph the Second, the cloisters are as thickly peopled as formerly, the number of convents is not less than seventy-six, and five of them are inhabited by women.

The archbishop of Prague is styled a prince of the Dignitaries. kingdom, and receives from Rome the title of legate of the holy see; he as well as the other bishops are nominated by the king, the pope confirms their appointment. No bull can be published in the kingdom without the consent of government. The highest spiritual courts which the pro-

¹ Liechtenstern.

*The edict was past on the 13th October 1781.

BOOK testants acknowledge, are the consistories at Prague and
CXXV. Vienna. The Jewish worship is under the direction of a council, the members are the great Rabbi at Prague, and two assistants.

Population. The present population of Bohemia is not accurately known; according to the last census, that of 1818, it amounted then to 3,275,866 inhabitants; in that number there were 1,520,934 males, and 1,754,932 females. It appears from the most authentic accounts, that the country did not contain more than 2,887,769 inhabitants in 1791, so that the increase in a period of twenty-seven years, was equal to 388,097 individuals. The population in 1827 may thus be nearly ascertained by a very simple calculation; in short if the third part of 388,097 be added to the census of 1818, then the result gives nearly the number of inhabitants in 1827. It may be thus seen that they amounted to 3,405,231, but that number is rather under than above the truth, for the years that have elapsed since the peace, have been favourable to population.¹

Nations
which make
up the po-
pulation.

The inhabitants consist chiefly of three distinct people; the Tchekhes or Slavonians, the Germans and Jews. The first form two-thirds of the population in the kingdom. The circle of Elnbogen is wholly, and other circles are partly peopled by Germans; their total number does not exceed eight hundred and fifty thousand; as to the Jews, they may be equal to fifty thousand.

Germans.

Most of the Germans in the country, who arrived about the ninth century, migrated from Saxony, and were employed in working the mines; the rest were almost all artisans; they came from different countries on the banks of the Rhine, at that time too populous, and settled in the towns. They were so numerous in Prague during the fourteenth century, and possessed so great a preponderance from their wealth, that the most important offices

¹ The time elapsed from 1818 to 1827 is equal to nine years; the increase in twenty-seven years is known; if the third part of it therefore be added to the census for 1818, it gives the population in 1827.

were committed to them. The university of Prague was founded in the same century, that institution tended to increase their number; for the desire of knowledge attracted many students from Germany, and not a few settled in the country. Lastly, when the partisans of Huss, who were all of Slavonic origin, were persecuted and obliged to quit Bohemia, the most of their property was confiscated and divided among German nobles, who, like the nobility under Lewis the fourteenth, enriched themselves with the spoils of the protestants, and had no scruples about receiving ill gotten wealth. If to these causes, so favourable to the settlement of the Germans in Bohemia, be added another, the protection which they obtained when the country was governed by Austria, for since that period, Germans have filled the highest offices in the state, it may be easily explained, why their influence is great, although their number is comparatively inconsiderable, and also why their language is so generally used. The lower orders among the Tchekhes retain their dialect, which together with the German is spoken by the middling classes.

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The Tchekhe or Bohemian language is one of those ^{Bohemian} dialects which have been styled Bohemo-Polish, by M. ^{language.} Balbi.^m It differs from the other dialects, such as the Polish, Croatian and Ragusan, not merely in its grammatical forms, but by its German characters, for in the others, the Roman letters are used. The Bohemians sprung from the Tchekhes, may be easily known by their pronunciation. If the German Bohemians are descended from the Bavarians, Saxons, Silesians or Austrians, or inhabit the frontiers near them, they retain the pronunciation of these different nations.

The people in Bohemia are strong and laborious, active ^{Physical} and well made. According to calculations published by ^{constitution.} Reiger and Liechtenstern, three individuals die annually out of a hundred; the proportion between the deaths and

^m See the Atlas Ethnographique.

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births, is as a thousand to a thousand three hundred and forty-four; out of ten thousand infants, a hundred and ninety-nine are still-born; the number of births is to the population as one to twenty-three. The total number of deaths amount to nearly ninety thousand, and of these seven hundred and seventy are violent or occasioned by accidents. But the mortality is not so great in some remote districts; in Beraun, Bitschow, Bonzlau, Chrudin, Czaslau, Klattau and Prachin, the deaths do not make up a fortieth or a forty-fifth part of the population. Numerous examples of longevity might be mentioned; there were several persons in 1801, between ninety and a hundred years of age. It is stated that out of five thousand nine hundred and thirty-five, seven hundred and fifty had passed their hundredth year, and twenty-nine were upwards of a hundred and ten. The proportion between natural and lawful children was at the same period, nearly as eight to a hundred, or seventy-six to a thousand. The mean duration of marriages is twenty-two years and two months, and the mean number of children from every marriage, about four. One marriage takes place yearly out of every hundred and thirty-four inhabitants, and the total number of married men in 1817, amounted to 569,793. It might be worth while to compare some of these facts, which relate only to the Christian population, with others relative to the Jews; among them the number of deaths is one in sixty-two, but the number of births does not exceed one in forty-three.

**Character of
the Ger-
mans.**

The Germans and Tchekhes differ as much in their character as in their language; they resemble each other in their strict observance of religious ceremonies, in their devotedness to their sovereign, and in their hatred against the signeurial nobility. The Slavonians may be distinguished from the Germans by the care which they take of their property, and by their constant desire of adding to it; they are less susceptible of attachment, less faithful in their affections, more addicted to society, dissipation and amusement. They boast of their prudence, but it con-

sists principally in not trusting their neighbours, particularly the Germans, whom they still consider enemies. In the military service, the soldiers of both nations rival each other in zeal and courage. The mountaineers are distinguished by a greater aptitude for the arts, by their generosity and a dignity of character, which are rarely observed among the people on the plains. BOOK
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The stranger, who travels through Bohemia, must perceive a great difference in the dress of the inhabitants; it does not, as in other countries, depend merely on wealth or fortune, it serves to distinguish the Slavonian from the German, and the German from the Jew. The Slavonic dress may be known on the mountains and on the plains by its resemblance to the Polish costume. Although some Germans have adopted it, the observer does not confound them with the other inhabitants, the character of their physiognomy is widely different. These remarks are only applicable to the lower orders; the middling as well as upper classes of society, dress like the French; for the fashions of that country are soon adopted by the gay and the wealthy. The Jews have retained the costume which is used by the lower orders, but they may be easily known, as they are the most filthy class of people in the country.

The food of the inhabitants is very different in different districts, and the cause depends more on the wealth and poverty of the soil, than on the wealth and poverty of the people. Barley and oat meal, milk and potatoes are generally used on the mountains, particularly by the labourers; beer is reserved for holy-days. But in the valleys and the plains, where nature is more profuse, the husbandmen have better and more substantial nourishment. The use of animal food is not so rare, and beer or wine is the ordinary drink. The Jews are more sober and abstemious than the other inhabitants; their thin and emaciated forms seem almost to prove that they deprive themselves of the necessary quantity of subsistence. Al- Food of
the people.

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Agricul-
ture.

though in a wretched and degraded state, they never take wine, spirits or any strong drink to excess; it is the Christian only that gets drunk in festivals and holy days.

It might be concluded from the consideration in which landed proprietors are held in most parts of Bohemia, that agriculture is well understood, that the husbandman derives from the fields, whatever they are capable of producing. The truth is, however, that there are few countries where agriculture is not better understood. The cause must be principally attributed to the inveterate prejudices and slothful habits of the peasantry; those districts in which, from the quality of the soil, one might expect to find the most abundant harvests, yield but scanty crops. But in the mountains, on the other hand, poor lands and inclement seasons, though great obstacles to fruitful harvests, have rendered the people more active and intelligent. It results from their efforts that some high districts produce more than is sufficient for the local consumption; indeed one of them, the district of Leitmeritz in the central chain, has been called the *Paradise of Bohemia*. If in the lower part of the country, which is naturally the most wealthy, a better system of agriculture was adopted, if government excited the husbandmen to labour, by encouraging the circulation of their products, by opening outlets for commerce, by improving the breed of cattle, which are every where deficient both in number and quality; the country might assume a new aspect, acquire great political importance, and become the brightest ornament in the crown of Austria. The breeding of sheep is neglected not only on the chain of the Riesen-Gebirge, which contains good pasturage, but throughout the whole kingdom. No reason can be assigned why as valuable sheep might not be reared in Bohemia as in Saxony or Silesia. Sheep are certainly more valuable than the goats which are every year increasing in the country. All agree that the Bohemian horses are of an excellent quality; many are kept in different places by govern-

ment for the purpose of improving the breed,^a and a strong, active and hardy race has thus been naturalized. BOOK
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The climate of Bohemia does not appear favourable to the culture of the vine; the quantity raised annually seldom exceeds 2,600 *eimers* or 540,000 gallons. It is however more than six hundred years ago since the vine was first introduced into Bohemia. Plants were imported by Charles the Fourth from Burgundy and the banks of the Rhine; wine, it has been affirmed, was then so abundant as to render it unnecessary to import any from foreign countries.^c Climate of
Bohemia.

The culture of fruit trees is found to be profitable; their number has increased considerably within the last twenty years, but at that time, however, it amounted to nearly eleven millions, consisting principally of apple, pear, plum, and cherry trees; their annual produce forms an important branch of commerce.^b Fruit trees.

Perhaps the most productive plants are hops and lint; the first is cultivated in all the fruitful lands, there are two kinds of it, the common and the green hop, the latter increases of its own accord. Lint and
hops.

All the different trees that are known in Germany, grow in the forests of Bohemia; they yield annually a quantity of timber much more than sufficient for the wants of the people; the greater portion is therefore exported. Forests.

The rearing of the industrious insects that furnish honey and wax, is common in most parts of the country; the number of hives belonging to the peasantry has not been estimated at less than sixty thousand. Bees.

The mountains and the forests abound in different sorts of game, some of which multiply in the plains. The rivers, Game, Fish.

^a The best horses are bred near Blatto, Alt-Bunzlau, Chlumetz, Josephstadt, Klattau, Koenigsgrätz, Nemoschutz, Nimburg, Pardubitz, Pilsen, Pisek, Podiebrad, Prague, Tabor, Theresienstadt and Kladrub.

^b J. M. Liechtenstern, Umriss einer geographisch-statistischen Schilderung des Königreichs-Böhmen.

^c Principally in the districts of Bidschow, Koenigsgrätz, Bunzlau, Saatz, Leimowitz, Prachin and Rakonitz.

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lakes and marshes are stored with various kinds of fish; more than two thousand hundredweights are sold or exported every year from the seigniory of Pardubitz in the district of Chrudim. The country is mostly supplied with trouts from the lordship of Bidschow. Carps weighing from twenty to thirty pounds are not unfrequently taken in some of the marshes. Many fresh water pearls are collected in the Moldau, the Elster and other rivers. Salmon and the fish which the Germans call the welsfisch, the *Silurus Glanis* (Linnæus), that weighs from ninety to a hundred pounds, frequent the Elbe. The same fish attains a greater size in the Danube; next to the sturgeon, it is the largest of any that are found in fresh water.

Silurus or
Sheat fish.

The head of the silurus is broad and flat, the mouth, which is very large, is furnished with a great number of small teeth; the back is round and of a greenish black, the belly of a bright green, and black spots are scattered over the body. The fins are yellow, tipped with blue, and covered with small sharp points of the same colour. The silurus has a voracious appetite, it seeks during the night, the spawn in the rivers, or the carcasses of birds and quadrupeds which the waters have thrown near the banks. A naturalist affirms that the remains of children have been found in its stomach.^a As it is slow in its motions, for its fins are short, it seldom overtakes its prey; it is probably on that account that it remains always during the day under stones, the roots of trees or in holes. Concealed by the ooze, its dark colour renders it invisible to the other fish; its whiskers appear on the mud, and in their movements and size, have some resemblance to worms; the small fish seize the bait, but as it keeps its mouth open, they are not aware of the danger, until it is too late to escape. The silurus grows slowly, its life is consequently of long duration; it is taken by the hook and the spear; the flesh of the animal is white, soft and disagreeable to the taste.

Miner.

It is difficult to examine any mineralogical collections

^a M. Bosc, Membre de l'Academie des Sciences.

without being convinced of the fact that Bohemia abounds in minerals. It is in the chain of the Ertz-Gebirge that the most extensive works are carried on, while in the south west part of the country, the mines so celebrated in ancient times are now wholly exhausted. The only tin mines in Bohemia and in the whole Austrian empire are situated on the declivities of the Ertz-Gebirge; their produce is not very great, it does not amount annually to nine thousand hundredweights. Attempts have lately been made to work some gold mines at the base of the Riesen-Gebirge. More than eight centuries ago, the district of Kaurzim was so rich in that metal, that about the year 998, the single mine of Tobalka, yielded ten thousand marks of gold. It is admitted however that the experiments, which have been hitherto made, have not corresponded with the expectations of the miners, still the gold washings on the banks of the Eule, the Sazawa, the Wottawa, the Lesnitz and other rivers, which flow in alluvial lands, are continued with some success. The silver mines in the district of Tabor, on the side of the Moravian mountains, are not productive. Several copper mines are situated in other districts, but they are not so abundant as the lead mines, although the produce of the latter does not exceed seven or eight thousand quintals. The silver mines yield annually about two thousand four hundred marks. The iron mines are without doubt the most important of any in the kingdom; they are worked in almost all the mountains, and the quantity of forged iron thus obtained, is not less than two hundred thousand quintals. Zinc, arsenic and mercury are obtained in different parts of the country; coals are abundant, and the salt springs are sufficiently productive to supply not only Bohemia but lower Austria.

It is sufficient to mention among the numerous mineral ^{Mineral} springs in the country, those of Tœplitz, Carlsbad and ^{waters.} Sedlitz, which are so celebrated that it may be necessary to enter into some details concerning them. The waters of

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Tœplitz are saline, ferruginous and alkaline; their temperature is about 117° of Fahrenheit. A German naturalist has endeavoured to explain the formation of the seven springs at Carlsbad. As their temperature is very high, he supposes that in the granite in the vicinity, chemical and galvanic effects are taking place, which by the action of non-mineral water, account for the formation of these warm springs.^f According to the same author, the Tœpel supplies this natural laboratory; he founds his opinion on a well known fact, namely that the springs are not so abundant in dry as in rainy weather, and also on the fact that gaz bubbles escape often from the waters of the river. Other naturalists attribute the heat of the springs to central fires in the earth. It seems to be generally admitted that, we are not in possession of sufficient facts to enable us to explain these phenomena. It may be remarked that according to the analysis of a distinguished chemist, the waters of Carlsbad contain a great quantity of sulphate and carbonate of soda.^g It has been observed too by a physician, that they may be used with success in hysterical and hypochondriacal diseases.^h

Sedlitz waters.

The purgative waters of Sedlitz which are imported into every country in Europe, are used with greater success than the last in the same complaints. They are so well known that it is needless to describe their properties, or to state that they are clear and limpid, of a bitter and salt taste. It appears from their chemical analysis that they contain sulphate and carbonate of lime and magnesia, as well as carbonic acid gas.ⁱ

Precious stones, &c.

It has been already observed that various precious stones are found in Bohemia. Some of them are the garnet, the

^f M. Goethe, *Natur-weisenschaft*, tome VI. page 211.

^g M. Berzelius.

^h M. Alibert, *Precis historique sur les eaux minerales, les plus usitées en médecine*.

ⁱ F. Hoffmann, *De scidularum et thermarum usu et abusu*. See also the analysis of them by Neumann.

ruby, the sapphire, the amethyst, the hyacinthus and the topaz. These furnish employment to the lapidary ; jaspers, cornelions and calcedony are used for different purposes. Different kinds of stone well adapted for building, marble and serpentine are common in many parts of the country. Good millstones are obtained in other places, and also a sort of schistus that is converted into excellent sharpening stones, and kaolin that is used in the porcelain works.

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Industry has made rapid advances in Bohemia within the last twenty years ; more than six hundred thousand pieces of linen are annually obtained from its manufactories, and they are sold for more than nine millions of florins. The produce of the tan-works may be estimated at nearly two millions two hundred thousand florins ; the price given for the hats made in the country, amounts to nine hundred thousand ; and the sum obtained for all the other different articles and manufactures, exceeds twenty-three millions, while the utmost value of the raw material is not equal to a fourth part of the same sum ; thus in that class of products there is a profit of sixteen millions of florins, which are divided among the workmen, the manufacturers and the merchants. It may be worth while to mention an important manufactory of lace and blond, which has been established at Hirschenstand in the circle of Elnbogen for more than forty years. It furnishes employment to eight thousand individuals, and the annual produce of their industry is equal to two hundred and eighty thousand florins. The greater portion of the last article is consumed in the country, the rest are exported to Saxony ; from that kingdom, the fine thread is obtained, while Austria furnishes the common thread and the silk.

Manufac-
tures.

It is only necessary to make one or two remarks on the commerce of Bohemia, to account for the jealousy and hatred, which subsist against the Jews. The inhabitants reproach them, because they never follow any trade or occupation in which manual labour is required. It may be feared that if they were to do so, they might be as much detested by tradesmen and work people, as they are at pre-

Commerce.

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sent by the mercantile part of the community. The Jews themselves seem to be aware of that circumstance, and besides, as most of them have numerous families, how could they be able to maintain their children during a long apprenticeship?

They are all brokers or money agents, a profession much more easy than any other, and one which does not require a previous training or apprenticeship; the example of the father suffices for the son.

**Industry of
the Jews.**

It has been said, that in whatever part of Bohemia, the Jews are numerous, the manufacturers are sooner or later ruined. If the statement be correct, it proves merely the want of foresight, or improvidence of the manufacturers. It is probable, that in Bohemia, as in every other country, many manufacturers begin business without a sufficient capital to carry it on. If the tradesman cannot fulfil his engagements with the Jew, but is obliged to give instead of money, his manufactures at a loss, he is very likely to be soon ruined; but ought his misfortunes to be attributed to the Jew? The one sells his money at as dear a rate as he can, and the other is as eager to sell his manufactures or merchandise at the highest price. The great law of commerce is equally applicable to them both.

Exports.

Bohemia exports not only its manufactures or the products of its industry; those of agriculture, such as grain, vegetables and fruits as well as the surplus timber that its forests yield, are exchanged for colonial produce, sufficient to supply the wants of the people. The countries with which it maintains direct commercial intercourse, are Prussia, Saxony, the great duchy of Baden and Bavaria. The fish, for much more are obtained than can be consumed in Bohemia, are exported to Austria. Nothing perhaps tends more to keep up the commerce of the country, than the annual fairs in different towns; the most important are held at Prague and Pilsen.

**Methods of
transporting
merchandise.**

Goods are transported on the Elbe, the Moldau and the Eger, in boats that carry from three hundred to twelve hundred quintals. The navigation against the current, is

often effected by the assistance of sails, while the north and north-east winds prevail in the countries that are watered by the Elbe. If a projected canal which is to communicate the Danube with the Moldau, were finished, Bohemia might derive great advantage from it, and as much perhaps if the principal roads were completed, which it is at present proposed to extend. It is certain that in 1817 their utmost length was not more than eight hundred and fifty English miles.

From the details into which we have entered, the reader may form a correct idea of Bohemia; the principal towns in the same country are yet to be described. Prague or the capital is situated almost in the centre of the kingdom. Four quarters extend on the banks of the Moldau, which crosses the city; on one side are built the Old and the New Town, on the other, Klein-Seite or the small quarter, and on the other Hradschin or the Upper Town. The population amounts to eighty-four thousand inhabitants, and the number of houses to three thousand four hundred. The situation of Prague has been much admired both on account of the Moldau, which may be about five hundred and sixty yards in breadth, the beauty of the neighbouring country, and the distant views of Mount Schwein and Petrin, that bound the horizon. The town occupies a great extent of ground; it cannot be less than twelve miles in circumference. Each quarter has its curiosities; in the Old Town, the stranger may observe a bridge across the Moldau, about eighteen hundred feet in length, supported by sixteen arches, adorned with twenty-eight statues of the saints, and built by the Emperor Charles the Fourth in the year 1338. The other buildings in the same quarter, are the Carolin or ancient university, founded in 1371, the townhouse remarkable for an astronomical clock, the work of the celebrated Tycho-Brahe, the church of Thein, in which is contained the mausoleum of the same great astronomer, the fine church of the Holy Cross, the museum of natural history, and the observatory. The streets in the new town are broad and well built; on an eminence

BOOK are observed the ruins of the Wischerad, an ancient castle
CXXV. that belonged to the kings of Bohemia; another town-
house is situated in the same quarter; the Hussites threw
thirteen members of the municipal council out of its win-
dows. The *Kleine-Seite* or Little Quarter is still better
built than the last; it may be remarked for its fine houses,
the church of Saint Nicholas, and the palace of Wallen-
stein. But in point of situation, the *Hradschin* or the up-
per town is finer than any other quarter; it is adorned by
the royal castle, the building of which was continued at
intervals for several centuries, and was at last completed
by Mary Theresa; the Dome or the cathedral, a model
of Gothic architecture rises near the same edifice. Prague
possesses a great number of public buildings, many chari-
table and useful institutions, scientific collections and li-
braries, one of which belonging to the university, con-
tains a hundred and thirty thousand volumes, and a ma-
nuscript of Pliny.

Antiquity. It is believed that Prague stands on the site of *Maro-*
budum, an ancient town of the *Marcomani*, so called from
Marobod or *Maroboduus*. Ruined by the invasion of the
barbarians it was rebuilt by the Slavonians about the year
611; it was enlarged in 723; its population was very
great during the fifteenth century, forty-four thousand
students attended its university. But the persecution
raised against John Huss, who was born in the town,* and
the revolt of the Hussites were fatal to the university; it
is not attended at present by more than a few hundred
students. The different manufactures and articles made
at Prague are hats, linen and cotton thread, silk and
woollen stuffs, Russian leather, nitric acid and glass.

Other It is unnecessary to describe minutely the other towns
Towns. in Bohemia, all of them are too insignificant to require a
detailed account. *Iung-Bunzlau*, a small town, built in
973, on the left banks of the *Iser*, by Boleslaw the second,
contains about three thousand six hundred inhabitants,

* History of Bohemia, by Æneas Sylvius.

wealthy from their industry and commerce. The small manufacturing town of Reischstadt is the appanage of Napoleon's son. Leitmeritz, a well built town does not contain more than three thousand five hundred individuals, and the fortress of Theresienstadt in the neighbourhood, commands a small place of a thousand inhabitants. Lippa is noted for its cloth and woollen manufactures, and more glass is made at Kamnitz than in any other town in the kingdom. The famous village of Warnsdorf, the largest of any in Bohemia, and from its industry more important than most towns in the same country, contains eight hundred houses and some fine public buildings. The two thousand three hundred inhabitants of Tœplitz are enriched with the produce of its salt springs. Saatz or Zatecs on the right bank of the Eger, is peopled by three thousand eight hundred persons; it was founded in the year 708, by a wealthy Bohemian noble, the count of Schwach, Carlsbad, celebrated for its pins, needles and cutlery, and still more so on account of its mineral water, contains two thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is surrounded by forests and high mountains; according to report, the springs which now constitute its wealth, were discovered while the emperor Charles the Fourth was enjoying the chase; one of the dogs had fallen into a boiling pool, and its cries awakened the attention of the royal party; from that circumstance the value of the water, and its salutary effects were soon afterwards made known.

Eger, a town of eight thousand four hundred inhabitants carries on a trade in cotton, linen and hemp. Pilsen, which is as populous, is enriched by its cloth manufactures and its four annual fairs. Pisek is supposed to be the best built town in the kingdom. Butweis contains a gymnasium, an arsenal and six thousand inhabitants. Tabor, which was formerly a strong place, stands on a height, it was celebrated during the wars of the Hussites. Kœniggreitz, an agreeable town of six thousand inhabitants, was at one time more populous; it has become the metropolis

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of a diocess; its fortifications were raised by Mary Theresa. It may be added that its schools are attended by pupils from most parts of the kingdom. Such are the principal towns in Bohemia, the others are too insignificant to require notice.

**Public in-
struction.**

There are many institutions in Bohemia, of which the object is to diffuse instruction and knowledge. The number of elementary, preparatory and scientific schools may be sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants; the Jews too have as many schools as they require; nothing more is wanted than that these institutions should be put under a better management, that the methods of conveying instruction should be facilitated and improved. Several individuals have shown their zeal for the arts, by forming themselves into a society at Prague, and by collecting at their own expense different objects of art, that are deemed useful in improving the taste of the young; an academy too is connected with the society, to which students recommended by the members are admitted. Another society has been founded in the same town for the purpose of encouraging and diffusing a taste for the study both of vocal and instrumental music. Seven hundred and eighty poor students, who desire to devote themselves to the sciences or the career of instruction are gratuitously educated at the university; a fund of one million three hundred and thirty-three thousand florins is reserved for that purpose. Prague possesses besides the only scientific society in the ancient provinces of the Austrian empire; it holds a considerable rank among the different institutions of the same kind in Europe.

**Charitable
institutions.**

The numerous charitable institutions in almost all the towns may be mentioned to the honour both of the Bohemian government and the wealthy classes in that country. There are few places of any consequence without hospitals for orphans, the infirm and the poor. The expenses connected with these places of charity have been estimated at 2,180,000 florins, and the number of persons admit-

ted into them at more than 3,300. Many beneficent societies have been formed, which administer at all times food to the indigent, firewood and clothing during winter, and pecuniary advances to work people and different individuals to whom such advances may be useful. Other societies have been established in the capital for the relief of widows, and respectable persons in decayed circumstances, such as merchants, lawyers and physicians. Different houses have been built in the same place for affording accommodation to the indigent sick and women in childbed. Funds have been raised for the relief of workmen, who have met with any severe bodily injury, and whose families, but for these funds, must have been left destitute. The most of these institutions are conducted on an excellent plan, those who contribute to them are aware that their money is much better laid out than if it were given in private or indiscriminate charity; it may be said indeed that those whom fortune has enabled to mitigate the calamities of others, are not less distinguished by their judgment than by their zeal in the cause of philanthropy.

The revenues of the kingdom amount to more than twenty-five millions of florins; the military force to fifty thousand men, exclusively of the *landwehre* or militia. The conscription has been long established in the country. A German geographer remarks correctly that there are few countries which can be more easily defended in the event of a foreign invasion.* It may be observed without entering into military details unconnected with our subject, that it is naturally defended by its mountains, that an hostile army could not advance without great difficulty, indeed the more numerous the army, the more easily could it be harassed by troops scattered in different parts of the country. The rivers, forests, mountains and ravines are obstacles which diminish greatly the chances of a successful invasion. But if the advantages which Bohemia derives

BOOK
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Finance.
Army.

* M. Liechtenstern.

BOOK from its position, are of importance to the inhabitants,
CXXV. they are less so to the Austrian empire. The tactics adopted by the European states, when Napoleon taught them to resist invasions and to defend themselves, might be employed with success in a war against that monarchy.

BOOK CXXVI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Tenth Section.—Description of Moravia and Austrian Silesia.

MORAVIA or Mœhren, as it is called in Germany, derives its name from the Morawa, a river thus denominated by the ancient Slavonians, but which the present Germans call the March. The province is entitled a county or margraviate, and politically united with Austrian Silesia. Both these countries shall be separately described in the account of their physical geography. The extent of the first is about eighty-six miles from north to south, and a hundred and twenty-eight from east to west. It is bounded on the west by Bohemia, on the south and the east by the archdutchy of Austria and Hungary, and on the north by Silesia. More than half the country is covered with mountains, which in many places, particularly in the south, enclose agreeable and fruitful vallies. The soil is elevated from five to nine hundred feet above the level of the sea, and it inclines principally towards the south. The March or the largest river rises in the Sudetes, flows from north to south, and receives most of the streams that descend from the mountains. It joins the Danube at some leagues from Presburg.

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Moravia.

Strata of intermediate limestone are situated in the central districts; a great variety of rocks, not uninteresting

Different
rocks.

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from their position, are observed on the mountains in the east, the north, and the west. Several coal deposits extend through the lower part of a valley in which gneiss abounds; they are less important, it is true, than the coal mines in Bohemia, but still they are worked with profit in the neighbourhood of Rossitz and Blawon. The geologist may discover fresh water deposits to the south of the coal, they are marked by the frequent occurrence of the fossil wood that has been termed lignites.*

Silesia.**Gesenke
mountains.**

The *Alt Vater* rises on the other side of the mountains that separate Moravia and Silesia; from its height probably it has been called the *Old Father* of the Gesenke chain; their summits join those of the Sudetes, which extend to a great distance towards the kingdom of Saxony. From the same lofty mountain may be seen the long and narrow province of Austrian Silesia, that extends from south-east to north-west. The length of it in that direction may be about an hundred miles, and the mean breadth not more than twenty. The Bischofs-kappe, one of these mountains, is about three thousand feet in height; from another, the Hungersberg, a lofty cataract descends.

**Ancient
names.**

The country on the northern side of the Gesenke chain is higher than any other part of the two Silesias. Mines of gold and silver were at one time worked there; the most productive were situated on the Hackelberg. According to a tradition, the Mongols destroyed in 1421 not only the men who were employed in working these mines, but most of the miners in Silesia. Of late years attempts have been made to open them, but they do not appear to have been attended with much success.

Geology.

The Austrian province of Silesia has been often visited by geologists; it contains, indeed, sufficient to indemnify them for their labour. On the sides of the Sudetes, Gesenke, and part of the Carpathians, may be observed several small basins, formed of sandstone, schistous argil,

* See the Memoirs of M. Riepl. Annales de l'Institut Polytechnique imperial et royal de Vienne.

coal, argillaceous iron and porphyry; on the same declivities are calcareous rocks containing different metals, such as lead, iron, and zinc, and also the limestone named muschelkalk, strata consisting partly of argil, salt and gypsum, argil in which different metals are found, and extensive alluvial deposits.^b The coal and the sandstone occupy a space of nearly thirty-two leagues. Granite appears on all the high points, but gneiss and micaceous schistus are more common on the lower parts of the mountains. Blue argil abounds in the alluvial lands, it is to that substance that the smooth and level appearance of the Silesian plains must be chiefly attributed.^c

The Quadi, perhaps the most ancient inhabitants of Moravia, were the neighbours and allies of the Marcomani, who, as we have already stated, made themselves masters of Bohemia. The Quadi are the same people that Strabo calls the Coldui;^d their history is very obscure until the time of Caracalla, by whom Gaiobomar, their king, was put to death. Tacitus makes mention of them in his annals; he informs us that the Suevi were placed by the Romans between the March and the *Cusus* or the *Waag*, and that Vannius or Wann, one of the Quadi by origin, was appointed king over them.^e The above passage proves the great antiquity of the name of the river, that the Slavonians call at present the Morawa. The Quadi united with the Marcomanni, and were sometimes formidable to the Roman power. Domitian marched against them to punish them for having assisted the Dacii; the Quadi proposed peace, the emperor rejected their conditions with disdain, but after having been defeated, he was compelled to make it on disadvantageous and humiliating terms. The Quadi endeavoured several times to extend their territory beyond the frontiers of Pannonia. Marcus Aurelius, in

^b See the Memoir of M. Manes. *Annales des Mines*, 1825.

^c Oeynhausen; Versuch einer geognostischen beschreibung von Oberschlesien.

^d Strabo, Book VII. Chap. 2. § 3.

^e Tacitus, Book II. § 63. inter Marcum et Cusum,

BOOK CXXVI. order to check their invasions, was obliged to station an army of twenty thousand men amongst them. Their history exhibits a series of defeats and revolts until the time of the emperor Numerian, who gained a decisive victory over them. According to Mentelle, they possessed four important cities; *Eburodunum* (Bria), *Eborum* (Obruntz), *Celementia* (Kalmins) and *Mediostanium* (Znaïm.)

Burii. Beyond the Marcomanni and the Quadi, says Tacitus, were other less powerful tribes.^f In the number of these tribes, he includes the Burii, who inhabited the country which forms at present Austrian Silesia. They resembled the Suevi in their manners and language. Ptolemy calls them the Luti.^g

Moravia
erected into
a kingdom. The descendants of these nations founded in the seventeenth century, the kingdom of Moravia, which then extended to Belgrade; to that country the Slavonians directed their conquests two hundred years afterwards, and Moravia was joined to the kingdom of Bohemia. It then became a margraviate; but since the reign of Mathias, king of Bohemia and Hungary in the fifteenth century, Moravia has not been governed by separate margraves.

Slavonians. The Slavonians, three times more numerous than the Germans, inhabit chiefly the central districts, and the Germans, the mountains. The former are divided into several branches; the *Hannaques*, the *Straniaques*, the *Slowaques* or *Charwates*, the *Horaques* or *Pookhoraques*, the *Podzulaques* and the *Wallaques*. The Hannaques derive their name from a small river, the Hannah, and they differ from the other inhabitants in their language, customs and dress; their principal wealth consists in their cattle and flocks. The Straniaques inhabit the districts near the confines of Hungary. The remaining tribes may be easily distinguished from each other, but the Wallaques are the most remarkable of any; they were not originally natives of Wallachia, as one might suppose from their name, which appears to be derived from the Wag or the Waha, for

^f De Moribus Germanorum, sec. 43.

^g Book II. Chapter XI.

they were formerly settled on its banks, before they migrated to the western declivities of the Little Carpathians. BOOK
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The Wallaches speak a Hungarian dialect; they wear the Hungarian costume. During the seventeenth century, while immense forests of beech and maple trees, covered the mountains, which they inhabit, they carried on a lucrative trade in wood and tinder.^h Now that the woods have been cleared, they are obliged to devote themselves to agriculture, still however they collect the last substance, but in place of exporting as formerly a hundred waggon loads every year to Leipsig, more than five or six are not at present sent. The Wallaches are distinguished from their neighbours by their cleanliness. They are brave in war, tolerant in their religion, and strictly honest in the ordinary transactions of life.ⁱ

The Slavonic language, analogous to the Tchekhe or Slavonic Bohemian, was corrupted by the different inhabitants that settled in the country. Although it abounds in consonants, it is rich, harmonious, and adapts itself easily in vocal music, to the different intonations of the voice. The literature of the same language is more ancient than the Polish. Its principal monuments are a hymn composed about the year 990 by bishop Adalbert, the Bohemo-Latin psalter of Wittemberg, written in the twelfth or thirteenth century, the poetic chronicle of Dalemil, which dates from the year 1310, and the translation of the Bible. It was much cultivated by the scholars and learned men in Bohemia, but many of their works were burnt or destroyed during the religious and political wars in the fifteenth and seventeenth centuries. The study of the language has been encouraged for the last twenty years by the Austrian government; and in the course of the same period many original Slavonic works have been printed. Two Slavonic newspapers and three or four literary journals are at present published. A work is now appearing in numbers at Vienna, it is to con-

^h Ama-dou.

ⁱ See Mittheilungen der Moehrisch-Schlesisch. Gesellschaft, by M. Fichtner.

BOOK CXXVI. sist of three hundred ancient Slavonic songs, which have been collected in the different circles of the monarchy.

Dialects. The different dialects of the Bohemo-Polish, spoken by the different Slavonic tribes, may still be distinguished, not only in Bohemia, but in Moravia and Silesia, although many German words have been introduced into them. The Hannaque seems from its pronunciation at least, to be harsh and guttural; the Slowaque is divided into two dialects, the Moravian Slowaque, which is spoken by the Slowaques and the Wallaques, and the Silesian Slowaque, differing principally from the former in the number of its Polish and German vocables; both are said to excel the other dialects in harmony and softness.*

Germans. The German nation is also subdivided into four branches, that are distinguished by the following names, the *Hochloenders* or Silesians, who inhabit the Gesenke chain; the *Kuhloendlers*, who occupy the eastern part of the country, the *Paganers* and the *Schoenhaengstlers* on the eastern sides of the Moravian mountains.

Other nations. The other people that migrated at a later period to Moravia, are the Germans who settled in it during the thirty years' war, the Croates, who are easily known from the other inhabitants in the seigniory of Dürnholm, the French in the seigniory of Goeding, and the Jews in the different trading towns.

Religion. When Joseph the Second established liberty of conscience within his dominions, many appeared suddenly throughout Moravia, who had preserved in obscurity the doctrines of John Huss, or the principles of Luther and Calvin. The Moravian brothers ventured to show themselves, they had acted three centuries before that period, an important part in Moravia and Bohemia, but since the reign of Ferdinand, had continued, like the other protestants, under a system of persecution. The Wallaques exhibited in their mountains, the curious spectacle of a people declaring against catholicism, without being resolved to

* Atlas Ethnographique, by M. A. Balbi.

substitute any other worship in its place. Not many years after the decree of Joseph the Second, more than twenty thousand individuals followed publicly the rites of the different protestant churches. Austrian Silesia may be considered in some respects a dependence on the diocess of Breslau, but it contains a great number of Lutherans. The protestant worship is under the direction of the consistory at Vienna, and the catholics acknowledge as their spiritual chiefs, the bishop of Brunn, and the archbishop of Olmutz.

The climate of Moravia, notwithstanding its elevation above the level of the sea, is milder than in other countries under the same parallel. The vine is cultivated with sufficient advantage beyond the forty-ninth degree. The greatest height of Reaumur's thermometer may be about 28°, and in some winters it has descended so low as 22° below zero. The mean temperature of Olmutz seems to be about 7° 3'. But the mountains are exposed to a much more rigorous climate than the central districts; thus the harvests are five or six weeks earlier in Moravia than in the mountainous country of Silesia. At Brunn, for instance, the cherries are fully ripe in June, while they do not begin to redden in Silesia before the first days of August. The north-east wind is the most prevalent in the two provinces.

The country abounds in game and fish; flocks, poultry, and other domestic animals are very common. Cattle forms the principal wealth of the Silesians, who, although a sober and industrious people, are not affluent. The corn harvests in the two provinces are more than sufficient for the wants of the population; there is no scarcity of potatoes, different kinds of vegetables, anise, hops, lint and flax. The grape and many fruit trees are cultivated with success, but of the latter the walnut is the most common.

Various are the mineral productions of the country; gold and silver, it has been remarked, were formerly abundant, but iron and coal are the most profitable at present. Alum, marble and other rocks are found in many places,

BOOK and worked with advantage. It ought to be observed,
CXXVI. however, that the water in most of the springs in the country is neither wholesome nor agreeable to the taste. In as much as relates to different branches of industry, Moravia is the most important province in the Austrian empire. It is unfortunate for its commerce, that the March is only navigable for vessels of a very small tonnage; the inhabitants are consequently obliged to transport almost all their merchandise by land. If communications were opened or facilitated, the greatest benefit might result from them; in its present state, however, the revenue of the country amounts to 7,200,000 florins.

Territorial divisions.

The two provinces of Moravia and Silesia have been considered as forming one since the year 1783; they are divided into eight circles.

Government.

The affairs of government are committed to the states, the deputies of which are divided into four classes, the clergy, nobility, knights and deputies from seven royal towns. The emperor convokes a general assembly of the states every year, he appoints their president, and at the close of the session, a permanent deputation continues its sittings, and watches over the interests of the province, until the members are again assembled.

Towns in Moravia.

Brünn or the capital of the province, is situated at the base of a hill, between two rivers, the Schwarzawa and the Zwitawa. It is worthy of its rank from its population, which exceeds thirty-eight thousand inhabitants. The ancient fortifications were partly demolished, the rest are in ruins, the citadel only remains, and serves at present as a state prison.

Public buildings.

The ancient convent of the Augustines is now the place where the states assemble; in their hall may be seen the plough, with which Joseph the Second, after the example of the Chinese monarchs, turned up a field in the neighbourhood of Rausnitz. The *Kraut Mark* or cabbage market has been considered the finest square in Brünn; it is adorned with a magnificent fountain. The two most remarkable of the nine churches are those of St. James and the Augustines in the *Alt Brünn* or old town. The

first of a light but bold Gothic architecture, is covered with copper, and contains a great many statues; in the second is observed a silver altar, surmounted with a picture of the virgin, worthy of Cranac's best days. A manuscript of the fourteenth century is preserved in the church of St. James; it contains an account of the siege of Troy, taken from two ancient manuscripts at Athens, written by eye witnesses of the siege.¹

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The glacis has been transformed into public walks. The Spielberg, a hill of eight hundred feet, part of which has been called the Frandzensberg, was formerly a Calvary. A marble obelisk sixty feet in height, consecrated to the glory of the Austrian armies, was erected in 1818 in the midst of a wood near the arid rocks, which crown the Spielberg. These walks command an extensive view, the spectator observes at twelve miles distance, the field of battle, and the village of Austerlitz.

Public
walks.

Brünn contains several hospitals, schools and seminaries, an agricultural society, another of natural history, and a valuable museum, which has been placed in the episcopal palace. The commerce of the town consists principally in the sale of its hats, silk and woollen stuffs.

Useful in-
stitutions.

The burgh of Buchlowitz, about four leagues to the east of Austerlitz, contains a population of thirteen hundred souls; it is known from its sulphureous and mineral springs. The village of Luhatschowitz is situated in the mountains, at a greater distance from the capital; its baths are much frequented, the fountains of Vincent and Armand are surrounded with handsome buildings in the form of temples; many afflicted with rheumatism and

Neighbour-
hood.

¹ The manuscript in the church of St. James is entitled, *Liber historiæ Trojanæ, per magistrum Guidonem de columnis de Nessana, de Græco translatus in Latinum*. Guido died in 1827, the copy of his MS. was not written by himself, but by a German of the name of Grunhagen, as is proved by the last sentence in the work. *Explicit historia seu chronica Trojanorum, scripta per Johannem Grunhagen; Anno Domini 1348*. See *Archiv. fur Geschishte*, 1823.

BOOK cutaneous diseases repair to them every year. The burgh
CXXVI. of Tolleschowitz derives its wealth from its vineyards, which yield excellent wine. Some ruins that may be observed in the neighbourhood, are supposed to have been once inhabited by saint Ciryllus, the first bishop of Moravia. The ruins of the first church which was built by the same bishop may still be seen at Hradisch, the capital of a district, situated in a fruitful plain, but exposed to the frequent inundations of the March. The town stands on an island in the middle of that river, and contains fifteen hundred inhabitants. Its position has rendered it necessary to erect and keep up thirty-nine bridges, one of which is more than three hundred yards in length. Hradisch was an important fortress in the fifteenth century; Matthias, king of Bohemia and Hungary, besieged it several times without success. Four sabres are deposited in the townhouse, they were given to the city by king Wladislaw to commemorate the bravery of the citizens. The market place is adorned with a fine statue of the virgin.

The village of Strany on the mountain of Jaworzina, is peopled by the Wallaques, that have been already mentioned; they differ from the other inhabitants in their manners, language and dress: during festivals and holy days, the people join in a national or characteristic dance, in which they wield their sabres with great dexterity. From the top of the heights in the neighbourhood of Strany, which form the frontiers of Moravia, a good eye can distinguish at thirty leagues distance the tower of St. Stephen.^m

Southern
frontiers of
Moravia.

The commercial town of Nicolsburg rises in the midst of a plain, near the southern extremity of the province; it contains seven thousand inhabitants, and nearly the half of them are Jews. Znaim, including its three suburbs, a town of the same population, is situated on the

^m Handbuch für reisende in dem österreichischen kaiserstaate: by Rudolphus Von Jenny.

left bank of the Taya, in a fruitful country, covered with rich vineyards. The principal edifices are the court of justice, and St. James's church, remarkable for its fine Gothic architecture. The chapter of Poeltemberg is separated from the town by a deep valley, it belongs to the knights of the cross. Znaim possesses two convents and a gymnasium. The burgesses wear a blue dress, and their wives are distinguished by their high bonnets trimmed with gold lace. The burgh of Eisgrub is also built on the banks of the Taya; at no great distance from it, is a rural castle, belonging to the prince of Leichtenstein; the building is not very large, but the park which surrounds it, is watered by the river, and laid out with much taste.

Iglau on the banks of the Iglau, lies in the midst of the Moravian mountains; its population amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants; it has three parish churches, a convent of minorites, founded by Opatocar the second, a gymnasium and an hospital. Some fine paintings and several ancient tombs are contained in the church of St. James. One of the churches that belonged to the jesuits, has been admired for its paintings in fresco. A cemetery shaded with lofty trees is the most frequented public walk in the town.

Trebitsch is encompassed with walls, and situated in a deep valley on the banks of the Iglawa; most strangers admire the picturesque arrangement of its houses, the large castle that commands it, its ancient parish church, and the convent of the capuchins. The view from the summit of the Mistkogel, a high mountain, is as fine as it is extensive; the eye reaches to Nicolsburg, and one may observe in succession, rich and fruitful plains, the sad and gloomy valley of the Iglau, the ruins of Templestein, an ancient castle in which the well is said to be five hundred yards in depth; on the left bank of the Rokitna, is seen the small town of Kromau, commanded by heights covered with trees, so arranged as to exhibit the appearance of

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the Mora-
vian moun-
tains.

Trebitsch.

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a vast and verdant amphitheatre. Coal is not uncommon on these heights, and the working of it forms the chief occupation of the fourteen hundred inhabitants in Kromau.

Ingrowitz. A rugged and hilly road leads across the Moravian mountains to Ingrowitz, a small town on the banks of the Swartza; although it does not contain more than eleven hundred inhabitants, it possesses a considerable trade in linen, and serves as a place of residence to the superintendent of the reformed communities in Moravia. Mount Prositschka rises at no great distance from the town; it was there that the ancient Slavonians went to worship their gods; its summit is often obscured with mists before rain, and on that account it has been called the *Weather-glass* by the country people. When the sky is serene, the view from it extends to Koeniggrætz in Bohemia.

Olmütz. Olmütz was the ancient capital of Moravia; its fortifications, which are still in good repair, and its citadel, which was the prison-house of Lafayette, render it an important place in time of war. The population, together with that of the five suburbs amounts to thirteen thousand inhabitants. The town is well built, provincial courts are held in it, and it is the residence of the archbishop. The lyceum and the other schools are numerous attended, the charitable institutions are managed with great care. The public fountains, remarkable for their elegance, reflect much credit on Donner, the sculptor. The townhouse is the finest edifice, the lyceum possesses a library of fifty thousand volumes, a valuable collection of natural history, and another of philosophical instruments. The people show the place where the emperor of Austria had an interview with Napoleon a short time before the battle of Austerlitz. Several manufactories have been built at Olmütz, and it carries on an extensive trade in cattle with Poland and Russia.

Ancient
name.

Antiquarians think it probable that the town may be

the same as the one which Ptolemy designates by the name of Edurum. BOOK.
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The March which waters Olmutz, descends towards the south, and traverses the plains on which Kremsier, the residence of the archbishop in the summer season, and perhaps the finest town in the province, is situated. Kremsier. Nothing can exceed the magnificence of the castle appropriated by the prince of the church ; galleries of paintings, scientific collections, libraries, gardens embellished with fountains and cascades, correspond with the architecture of the edifice. The population of the town is not much greater than four thousand souls. Prerau on the Betschwa, though still less populous, is one of the most ancient towns in the country ; within its walls may be observed a very large building, which belonged formerly to the templars. Weiskirschen, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, at a short distance from the Betschwa, is visited by the strangers that resort to the baths at Tœplitz about a mile and a half distant, a place that must not be confounded with Tœplitz in Bohemia. A precipice four hundred feet in height, is situated near the thermal springs, and a marsh of mineral water extends below it.

Such are the principal towns in Moravia ; but Joëgersdorf rises at the base of the Buzberg, on the other side of the mountains that separate the province from Silesia. Austrian
Silesia It stands on a fruitful valley, it is encompassed with walls, and depends on the dutchy belonging to the prince of Leichtenstein. The mountain that commands it, on the summit of which, a large church has been erected, is often visited by botanists. The town contains four thousand seven hundred inhabitants.

Troppau, a strong place with a population of ten thousand souls, is well built, the streets are straight and broad ; the public buildings are the ancient townhouse, a theatre, several churches and the ducal castle of Leichtenstein. It contains different manufactories, but its trade consists principally in soap. Teschen, a town of six thousand inhabi- Troppau

BOOK tants, is situated on the side of the Carpathians, a country
CXXVI. covered with forests and pasturage. Weichsel, a village
to the south-east of the last place, stands on a valley,
remarkable for a cataract, which descends from the height
of two hundred feet; the springs that supply it, are the
sources of the fine river that traverses Poland. Lastly,
Bielitz on the frontiers of Galicia, is noted for its cloth
manufactories; it contains five thousand inhabitants, and
not fewer than the half of them are employed in making
cloth.

BOOK CXXVII.

EUROPE.

*Europe continued.—Germany.—Eleventh Section.—
Archduchy of Austria.*

THE country about to be described, is mostly enclosed by the different possessions of the Austrian empire, an empire BOOK
CXXVII. extending over a number of nations, foreign to each other, governed by the same sovereign, but according to different laws. The inhabitants in some possessions lately added to Austria, attach no meaning to the word patriotism; passive obedience is considered their only duty; in others, that obedience may be attributed to fear rather than to ignorance; the hope of independence cheers them, their most earnest desire is to throw off the yoke. The former having submitted to a despotic government for ages, know no other blessing than repose, have no other wish than to increase their wealth, and by that means, their temporal enjoyments; the latter, jealous of their independence, are apt to suppose they have preserved it, because their countries are entitled duchies or kingdoms. All in short, are more effectually separated from each other by their manners, customs and language, than by the mountainous chains which bound them.

The archduchy of Austria is limited on the west by Position. Bavaria, on the north by Bohemia and Moravia, on the east and the south-east by Hungary, and on the south by the duchy of Styria.

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Surface.

The superficies of the country may be about seven hundred and eight German square miles.^a It is divided by the Ens into two nearly equal parts; the one situated on the left of the river is styled the *government above the Ens*, and the other on the right, *the government below the Ens*.

Mountains.

The mountains in the south of Bohemia, and the Norican Alps enclose a large and fruitful plain, which the majestic Danube traverses from west to east. Branches of these mountains extend to the banks of the river, they form a great many vallies, and render the country one of the most agreeable and romantic in Europe. The heights of the Manhart, and the chain of the Greiner-Wald are not very lofty; but others which extend to the south of the Danube, rise to a great height, and some are covered with eternal snow.^b

Geological
structure.

It may be remarked that the mountains which extend from Vienna to the calcareous chain of the Alps, particularly the Thomasberg and the Meyersdorf, contain several deposits of coal, which are accompanied with argillaceous sandstone, calcareous rocks, quartz and schistous marl mixed with marine shells and the impressions of plants.

^a According to M. Max. Freid. Thielen, it is equal to 708 $\frac{2}{5}$ th German, or nearly 8503 English square miles.

^b The height of the principal summits in the Norican Alps, has been already mentioned; but there are several lofty mountains on the frontier of the Archduchy, which may be specified.

On the east or above the Ens.

The Hochhorn	.	.	10,667 feet.
The Dachstein	.	.	9,285
The Hoher Kreuzberg	.	.	8,726
The Gradstein	.	.	8,598
The Grosser Priel	.	.	8,580
The Kopper Kehr Stein	.	.	7,734

On the west or below the Ens.

The Cetscher	.	.	6,062 feet.
The Wechselberg	.	.	5,574
The Huthwisch	.	.	2,716

Coal is likewise found at the base of the Alps, in the valley of the Ens.^c

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On the east of the same river, lands of a different nature, and formed at different epochs, contain mines of iron, lead, silver and coal. The lofty district of Monasberg is covered in several places with alluvial deposits. The number and height of the mountains on the west of the Ens, render the neighbourhood of Salzburg, and the country of Berchtesgaden, more interesting to the geologist. They form part of the Norican Alps, they are composed of granite, sandstone or psammities and calcareous rocks. Quartz, garnets and other precious stones, magnetic ore, marble, rock-salt, feldspar and serpentine, as well as most of the metals are found at different elevations. The calcareous mountains seem to be loftier than the granite, and the illusion is partly occasioned by their steep and rapid declivities. But without having recourse to the operations of the barometer, it is not difficult to discover that the granite mountains appear lower, merely because they are seen from a greater distance; indeed at the approach of winter, they are always first covered with snow.

The calcareous mountains are much more interesting to ^{Vegetation.} the botanist, on account of their abundant and varied vegetation. The cause of so many plants may be attributed to their geological structure, and particularly to the comparative lowness of their elevation. Lichens and almost all the cryptogamia are nowhere observed, while the schistous and granite mountains are covered with them; in the first, springs and streams are very rare, in the others they are abundant, and the noise of the cataract is often heard amidst precipices, steep rocks and low vallies. The land rises gradually from north to south in the country of Salzburg, and if the level of the lowest plains be compared with the highest summits, (for instance, the Wisbachshorn,) the difference will be found to be greater than ten thou-

^c See the Memoir of M. Riepl, *Annales de l'institut polytechnique de Vienne*, Tome II.

BOOK sand feet.^a A belt of land that extends from east to west
CXXVII. along the whole length of the archdutchy, may be observ-
 ed to the north of Salzburg; it is composed of different
 rocks, and a sort of plastic argil, well adapted for earthen
 ware. It rests on calcareous rocks, to which succeed strata
 of argillaceous schistus, that are supported on micaschis-
 tus and other rocks of the Alpine chain.

Lakes. Extensive marshy lands and several well known mineral
 springs appear on the east and the west of the Ens. Dif-
 ferent lakes and marshes are situated in the part of the arch-
 dutchy above the same river. The two most important are
 the Atter, which may be about 7288 *iochs* or Austrian
 acres in superficial extent, and the Traun, which although
 not more than 3,777, is better known than the other, from
 its picturesque situation and the beauty of the neighbour-
 ing districts.

Rivers. The greatest rivers tributary to the Danube, are the March
 on the north, and the Ens on the south—the ancient *Anisus*,
 of which the course may be about a hundred and twenty-eight
 miles, and the Traun that issues from a small lake in the
 Norican Alps near Aussée, traverses the lakes of Hallstœdt
 and Traun, and falls near Lambach in the form of a cas-
 cade from rocks sixty feet in height. It is navigable for
 more than seventy miles of its course, neither is its naviga-
 tion interrupted by the falls, for a canal about three hun-
 dred yards in length, communicates with the river.

**Ancient in-
habitants.** Having thus described the position, and given a short
 account of the archdutchy, it may be right to mention its
 former inhabitants. The lands between the Danube and
 the Alps, were, according to Ptolemy, inhabited by the
 Ambilici and the Ambidrani, who were tribes of the Norici.
 The country was known to the Romans by the name of
 Noricum. The districts round Vienna were included in
 Upper Pannonia, and the left bank of the Danube was peo-
 pled by the Norici and Quadi. The history of the Norici or
 Noricans is very uncertain, but there are reasons to believe
 that they were governed by kings, before they submitted

^a See Salzburg und Berchtesgaden, by Francis Antony von Braune.

to the Romans. Noricum became a Roman province under the reign of Augustus; it was considered of sufficient importance to be divided into two parts; the one nearest the Danube, was called *Noricum ripense*, and the other, near and beyond the Alps, was styled *Noricum Mediterraneum*. BOOK CXXVII.

The principal towns on the banks of the river, were *Boiodurum*, at present Ilzstadt, *Laureacum*, (Larch), *Aredate* and *Claudinium*, the sites of which are unknown, *Ovilabis*, (Wels) and *Invavum* (Salzburg). While the Romans were powerful, the Quadi, Marcomani and other neighbouring nations respected the Norici; but they were at last defeated by the Goths; Alaric devastated their country, which was afterwards laid waste by the Suevi and the Herules. Ancient Towns.

About the sixth century, the *Avars* or *Avari*, a people originally from the vallies of the Ural, invaded and took part of the archduchy; it is not improbable that they founded a kingdom, to which other nations in the west gave the name of *Æsterreich* or the eastern kingdom, Charlemagne made himself master of it, and divided it into several counties. The frequent incursions of the Magjars or Hungarians induced Henry the Fowler to erect it into a margraviate in the year 928, of which the investiture was bestowed on his nephew Leopold. Frederick Barbarossa changed it into a dutchy. It was again conquered in the thirteenth century by Ottocar the Second, king of Bohemia; but that prince having refused to pay tribute to Rodolphus of Habsburg, then elected emperor, a war ensued in which Ottocar was slain. The dutchy thus passed to the descendants of Rodolphus, who have since acquired the rank and importance that are attached to the house of Austria. Such was the origin of the family, which courtly genealogists have traced to the time of Noah's ark, or at all events to the days of the Trojan horse. Name of Austria.

The inhabitants are so mixed by the invasions of which Austria has been the theatre, that it is difficult to Confusion of people.

BOOK CXXVII. discover the shades by which they were formerly distinguished. Some Slavonians, however, are found on the frontiers of Moravia, in the country above the Ens. The descendants of the Norici exhibit proofs of their ancient race in the country below the Ens. Their language differs from that of the other inhabitants. The people in the district of Salzach show by their customs and character, the remains of a distinct origin; the most of them are honest and industrious.

Language. The Austrian German, less pure than that which is spoken in the centre of Germany, forms one of the Danubian dialects. A Bavarian dialect is spoken in the archduchy, and different varieties of the German in the rest of the country. All of them abound in diminutives, but none of them are so soft or harmonious as the Bavarian.

Climate. The southern part of Austria is higher, and therefore colder than any other district; the grape arrives seldom at maturity. The climate is milder in the valley of the Danube, and the air is every where pure and wholesome. The rain that falls annually varies from twenty-four to thirty inches, and the most frequent winds are the west, the north-west and the east. The climate below the Ens is temperate but variable; Reaumur's thermometer never descends lower than nineteen degrees, and does not ascend higher than twenty-nine. There may be about twice as many fair as rainy days throughout the year.

Diseases. Although Austria is not exposed to the ravages of epidemic diseases, the mortality is, however, more considerable than in the other possessions of the Austrian empire. The number of deaths compared to the population is in the ratio of one to thirty-four. The *cretins*, those beings both morally and physically degraded, are very numerous in the mountains near Salzburg.

Agriculture. It has been already said that the Austrians are laborious, and that the desire of increasing their wealth is observable among many in every class of society. For these reasons, agriculture and industry are carried to a degree of perfection, which appears to be incompatible with the general

but incorrect notions concerning the indolence of the people. The country, it must be admitted, consumes ^{BOOK CXXVII.} more than it produces, but the insufficiency of the grain harvests in the governments above and below the Ens, ought to be attributed rather to the quality of the soil, than to the ignorance of the husbandmen. Fruit trees are common on the left bank of the Ens, and dried fruit forms a branch of exportation; but the orchards on the right bank of the river are more abundant and more valuable; it is believed too that the finest vegetables in the empire are produced in the neighbourhood of Vienna.

If the climate be ill adapted to the success of the vine ^{Wines.} in the districts above the Ens, the culture of the same plant in the rest of the country forms the most important source of agricultural wealth. The best wines are those of Mauerbach, Kloster-Neuburg, Feldsberg, Güzing, Roetz and Bisamberg. Lint, flax and saffron are cultivated with advantage in the country below the Ens, but as the lands do not yield rich pastures, many cattle are not reared, indeed the number is insufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. The forests have been long neglected, fire wood is consequently found to be too expensive for the poorer classes. The meadows in the province above the Ens are so abundant that more fodder is raised in the government than in any other part of the Austrian empire; and although the coldness of the climate compels the inhabitants to consume a great quantity of wood, a considerable time may elapse before it be necessary to introduce coal, or before the forests which cover the mountains, are exhausted.

Lower Austria is amply supplied with some domestic ^{Animals.} animals, and although there may be a deficiency in cattle, it is admitted that the breed of sheep has been improved, that the horses are strong and well made. The excellence of the pastures in Upper Austria has led the inhabitants to imitate the Swiss, they bestow the same care on their flocks and dairy. The forests in that country afford shelter to different sorts of game; wolves, bears and chamois. But

BOOK as most of the woods have been cut in lower Austria, game
CXXXVII. has become less common in that government.

Industry.

The mines in the archduchy are worked with much intelligence; an author affirms, that if it were not the interest of government to spare fuel, Upper Austria might supply all the hereditary states in Germany with salt.^c The salt mines of Hallein produce nine hundred thousand quintals. The district of Salzach, in mineral wealth perhaps more important than any other, furnishes every year three hundred marks of gold, seven hundred and twenty of silver, three hundred and eighty quintals of copper, four hundred and ninety of lead, ten of arsenic, and fifty-three of vitriol. Lower Austria derives from its mines thirty-four thousand hundredweights of iron, and two thousand five hundred of alum; the lead mines containing silver seem to be nearly exhausted, but the coal mines are much more profitable than ever they were at any former period; their annual produce exceeds two hundred and thirty thousand quintals.

Manufactures.

On the left of the Ens, many individuals are engaged in working iron; they are more numerous indeed than those employed in working all the other metals; it furnishes the means of subsistence to fifty thousand families in the district of Traun. The manufactures consist principally of woollen stuffs, linen and muslin. But the people in Lower Austria are still more industrious, in that respect it surpasses all the other possessions of the Austrian empire, Cotton mills, linen, cloth, ribbon and paper manufactories, founderies, iron, leather and glass works are to be seen in many parts of the country. A geographer estimates their produce at eighty-five millions of Austrian florins.^f

Commerce.

It might be naturally inferred from so great a variety of manufactures, that the commerce throughout the country must be considerable, almost the whole, however, is concentrated at Vienna. The metropolis, from its being the residence of the court, from its position, and from its

^c Hassel's Geography.

^f Leichtenstein's Geography.

extensive credit, has long possessed the principal commerce of Austria. Linz, Salzburg, Steyer, Neustadt-Kreims and some other towns serve as intermediate stations to Vienna. The value of the goods exported from it, cannot be valued at less than fifteen millions of florins, the imports amount to the same sum, and the transit trade circulates a revenue of five millions. It would be needless to inquire, after the example of some authors, whether the commercial balance, as it has been termed, is in favour of Austria; because it is evident there must be always a balance between the exports and imports of a state, since in every case an equivalent value must be given for the articles imported. Goods are conveyed by water on the Ens, the March, the Traun, but most of all by the Danube; many vessels loaded with cargoes from a hundred and fifty to two hundred tons may be seen on the last river. Merchandise is transported by land along eleven principal roads, three of which in Upper Austria form a total length of three hundred, and the rest of more than six hundred miles.

The archduchy exhibits in a religious point of view, as well as in many others, that contrast between privileges and restrictions which characterizes countries, where prejudice and caprice are substituted for justice and right. It is not intended to throw any censure on the government, but merely on the mass of the inhabitants. They showed themselves under Joseph the Second, incapable of deriving any advantage from the institutions and privileges which that monarch was disposed to grant them. It is not however the less singular to observe in the same province, religious liberty established on one side, and intolerance on the other. As in the other states of the empire, catholicism is the prevailing worship, and the one that has most partisans in Lower Austria; there Greeks, protestants and Jews enjoy equal protection, they can repair to their churches, consistories and synagogues; while in Upper Austria, which contains twenty-four thousand lutherans,

BOOK who are allowed the free exercise of their religion, Jews
CXXVII. are not tolerated.

**Constitu-
tion.**

It is known that the differences which exist between the liberties and the privileges of some provinces, depend on the conditions that were stipulated at the time of their union with the crown. The country below the Ens, was originally the great dutchy of Austria; the country situated on the other bank of the river was annexed at a later period. To the great dutchy were attached important privileges during the long continuance of the German empire; it is from these privileges, and as kings of Bohemia, that the Austrian emperors possess the right of presiding over the Germanic confederation. But according to certain treaties, that have existed for nearly four hundred years, the power of the sovereign is modified by the states, which the emperor at his coronation oath binds himself to maintain.

States.

These states, it has been observed, are organised in the same manner as in Bohemia; they consist of the high clergy, the nobility and the deputies from some privileged towns; they are divided into a general assembly and a permanent commission, they can only be convoked by the sovereign. Assemblies of the same sort are held in Upper Austria, the dutchy of Salzburg has its separate states.

**Courts of
justice.**

Upper Austria is divided into five circles, and Lower Austria into four. In the first, a supreme court sits at Linz, and takes cognizance only of the causes of the nobles and privileged classes; three hundred and fifty-five inferior tribunals decide the causes to which plebeians are parties. Six hundred and twelve tribunals have been established for the same purpose in Lower Austria, while the nobles are only amenable to the supreme Court at Vienna, and the common people can appeal to it against the decision of the other tribunals. Two councils of censors are held, the one at Linz, the other at Vienna; it is the duty of the members to examine not only all the works

published in the country, but such as are imported from foreign states. BOOK
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The revenues of Upper Austria amount to L.750,000, Revenue. and of Lower Austria to nearly L.2,500,000. All the individuals from the noble to the peasant, are removed beyond the reach of poverty; they may be said to be affluent, when compared with the people in other countries. The advocates of absolute power have attached great weight to that fact, which proves merely that under one despotic government, the nobles do not abuse their privileges, and the people are protected by the impartial administration of the laws; in other words, that frugal and industrious men amass wealth, wherever the right of property is respected. But is man like the lower animals? has he no other enjoyment than that of satisfying his physical wants? has he no other desire than that of living in obscurity or repose? If the Austrians are now happy under a paternal sceptre, the time may perhaps come, when they will envy the destinies of some states in Germany.

Vienna and that part of the Danube which separates Neighbour-
hood of
Vienna. the town from the suburbs, are situated in the centre of a fine and fruitful plain. Some travellers commend whatever they see in foreign countries, others, particularly the French, blame whatever does not recal the customs and neighbourhood of Paris; it is necessary to avoid both errors, in endeavouring to describe the large valley round Vienna. Towards the north, the eye tries to follow the different branches of the river, whose broad and rapid course, together with the vessels that cover it, embellish and vivify the rich picture. Islands covered with trees, add to the beauty of the landscape in the same direction. The surface of the water opposite Vienna is about four hundred and eighty feet above the level of the sea. The limits of the basin on the east, are formed by heights covered with houses, which unite with those that bound it on the south. The basin becomes broader on the west, and extends to the Manharts mountains, covered with forests; on the north the eye wanders over a plain, the ex-

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tent of which it cannot measure ; the heights on the south are crowned with villages and country houses, surrounded by verdant woods. The lofty summits behind these heights, have from their distance a bluish tint, of which the different shades are insensibly lost in the azure of the sky.

Vienna.

Vienna, in German Wien, was founded in 1142 by Henry the First, duke of Austria ; it is at present the largest city in Austria. It was so called from a small river which crosses it, and throws itself into the Danube. The capital is about four hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea ; its circumference, including the different suburbs, is not less than three and a half German, or twelve English miles. Thus, in superficial extent, it is nearly equal to Paris, although the two towns are very different in point of population, for Vienna does not contain more than two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. The real town stands nearly on the centre of the ground which all the buildings occupy ; it is encompassed with ditches and ramparts, and communicates by twelve gates with thirty-four suburbs, which are certainly extensive, but cultivated fields are situated in some of them. Encroachments however are every day making on the fields, indeed more than six hundred new houses have been built since the year 1826. Vienna no longer resembles the town in which the French have several times entered victorious ; were those who had seen it ten years ago to return at present, they might be apt to suppose it a different place. It is long since the bastions and the ramparts have been adorned with fine walks ; and since the *Burg Bastey* and the *Bastey of Rothenschurm* have been embellished with elegant buildings ; from the *Burg* or town-wall, on a sloping terrace may be seen two gardens laid out with much taste, the one belongs to the court, and the other to the public ; in the last has been placed an admirable statue of Theseus, the work of Canova.

The city.

The irregularity of the buildings in the interior of the city indicates its antiquity. None of the eighteen squares

are very large, the hundred and twenty streets, though narrow and crooked, are clean and well paved. The houses are large, high and substantially built; the mean number of inhabitants to each house exceeds forty persons, but some of them contain many more. One house, for example, is inhabited by four hundred tenants, and it yields a rental of sixty thousand florins, or nearly L.7000. The ancient burgess hospital, now private property, is let to two hundred families at a rental of a hundred and twenty thousand florins. The most of the squares are adorned with fountains or other monuments. The Hof or the largest square is also the most regular; it is decorated with bronze statues, founded by Fischer. A colossal equestrian statue of the emperor Joseph the Second, also in bronze, decorates at present the square of Joseph. A fountain, in which the leaden figures represent the four principal rivers in the archduchy, has been erected on the Neumark. But the Graben's square, which stands near the centre of the town, is more frequented than any other; in an enclosure, are observed two fountains and marble figures representing the trinity, perhaps the best work of Strudel. The principal shops and warehouses are situated in that square and in the Kohlmark, a large and well built street that leads to it.

The Bourg, an imperial palace, is, without doubt, the finest edifice in Vienna; several collections are at present contained in it, they consist of minerals, many objects of art, curiosities and medals; they are supposed to be more valuable than other collections of the same kind in Europe.* The emperor inhabits that part of the Bourg which has been called the Schweitzenhof. The palace, like the Tuileries, unworthy of a sovereign, is surrounded with many public buildings; on one side is situated the ancient imperial chancery, adorned with many statues, forming four groups of a colossal size; on the other, the imperial

* Among the antiquities are a great many bronze figures, statues and jewels of different kinds, five hundred Etruscan vases, four hundred ancient lamps; and thirty-two thousand gold and silver medals.

BOOK CXXVII. library, containing three hundred thousand volumes, six thousand specimens of early printing, and twelve thousand manuscripts; ^a at a greater distance are the riding-school, a very elegant building, the two guard rooms and the theatre of the palace. The other buildings that may be mentioned, are the palace of the duke of Saxe-Tekhen, the mint, the chancery of the court, the war-office, the Bohemian and Hungarian chanceries, the townhouse, the palace of the archbishop, the bank, the custom-house, the university, the chamber of the states, and the two arsenals.

In one of the last buildings, the town's arsenal in the Hof, is preserved the head of the great vizier Kara-Mustapha, who commanded the Turkish army at the blockade of Vienna in 1683, and was strangled at Belgrade in the following year. In the great arsenal are to be seen part of the dress worn by Gustaphus Adolphus at the battle of Leützen, and the balloon, which in consequence of the observations made from it, enabled the French to gain the battle of Fleurus.

Number of houses, &c. The number of houses, it has been observed, is rapidly increasing, but according to a late census, they were equal to seven thousand and fifty, there were besides, a hundred and twenty-three of a better description, belonging to different nobles, twenty-nine catholic churches, one reformed, and one lutheran, two Greek churches, two synagogues and seventeen convents,—fourteen of men, and three of women.

Principal churches. The three principal churches are those of St. Peter, the Augustines, and the metropolitan church of St. Stephen; the first is built after the model of the famous one at Rome, and the cupola is covered with copper; the second was

^a In the same library are eight thousand volumes of engravings, and two hundred and seventeen volumes of portraits. Among the manuscripts are several Mexican hieroglyphics, which some future Champollion may perhaps decypher, a manuscript of Dioscorides, with plants on vellum, painted in the fifth century, the original of the senatus consultum by which the Bacchanalia were regulated, A. R. 567; lastly, Tasso's manuscript of Jerusalem delivered.

finished in the year 1330, it contains the mausoleum of the great dutchess Christina, a monument that cost 20,000 ducats, and in which it is easy to discover the genius and talent of Canova; the hearts of the deceased members of the imperial family are preserved in a chapel adjoining the same building. The church of St. Stephen, a fine Gothic edifice of the thirteenth century, is three hundred and forty feet in length, two hundred and twenty in breadth, and eighty in height. The tower may be about four hundred and thirty feet above the ground, it supports a bell, weighing more than eighteen tons, and made of the cannon taken from the Turks, after they raised the siege of Vienna. The same building is adorned with thirty-eight marble altars, it contains the tomb of the emperor Frederick the Fourth, of several cardinals, prince Eugene, and the celebrated Schpisshammer, a physician, a poet, an orator, historian and philosopher. •

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The town communicates by thirty-nine bridges with Suburbs. Leopoldstadt and the suburbs on the left bank of the Danube. Leopoldstadt, situated on an island, is exposed to the inundations of the river. A fine walk, in which are planted different rows of trees, that terminate in a grove, serves as a place of meeting to more than thirty thousand persons on St. Bridget's day—the tutelar saint of the parish. The quarter of Jaegerzeile on the same island, is inhabited by the higher classes; embellished by many fine buildings, a theatre, and most of all by the Prater, a magnificent walk, in which may be observed coffee-houses, various places of amusement, panoramas, riding-schools, and schools of natation. At no great distance from it, is situated the Belvedere, built by prince Eugene, now the property of the emperor, and remarkable for its gallery of valuable paintings.¹ The large military hospital and the church

¹ In the right side of the gallery are three hundred and twenty-five pictures by the great Italian masters; on the left a hundred and ninety-five of the Flemish school, and in the upper story, three hundred and fifty-one of the ancient and modern German schools. In one of the rooms is observed a fine Mosiac painting representing the last supper by Leonardi da Vinci.

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belonging to it, are situated near the entrance to the suburbs of Landstrasse. The church of St. Charles, more regular than any other in Vienna, adorns the suburbs of Vieden; it was built by the emperor Charles the Fourth, to fulfil a vow he had made, while the plague desolated the city in the year 1371. The suburbs of Vienna, although irregular, are finer than the town; they seem almost to be formed of palaces and gardens; but the streets, it must be admitted, are ill paved, the stones used for the purpose are too small, and on that account disagreeable to walkers.

Places of instruction.

It is unnecessary to enumerate all the places of public or private instruction in Vienna, it may be sufficient to mention the most important. Whatever has any connexion with the useful arts, the different kinds of industry, and commerce, is taught in the polytechnic school. The medical and surgical schools are well attended; twelve hundred students attend the university, and the lectures are delivered by seventy-nine professors. The university library consists of a hundred thousand volumes; there are chairs of anatomy, chemistry, physics and the different sciences. The oriental school was established in order to form interpreters, and facilitate the relations between Austria and the Porte. Besides these schools, others have been instituted for the children of the nobility. The fine arts are taught in the imperial academy, and in other seminaries the application of these arts to different products of industry. To these may be added the academy of engineers, and the musical school,* a normal school; a theological seminary, of which the masters are zealous and well informed ecclesiastics, five colleges and a protestant university that is ill attended, because the wealthier protestants prefer to educate their children at home; lastly,

* It is stated in the *Weiner-Zeit* (1825.) that a hundred and seventy-five pupils of both sexes attend the musical school. It contains a library consisting of historical and theoretical works relative to music, a great many manuscripts on the same subject, and a very extensive collection of ancient and modern musical instruments.

there are sixty schools for the lower orders, and most of them are conducted on an excellent plan; in one of them, the school of Neubaugasse, they are gratuitously taught, they learn reading, writing, arithmetic and drawing; corporal punishment has been abolished, the girls are instructed in needlework, and kept separate from the boys. Other charity schools for the children of artisans are open on the Sundays from nine to eleven o'clock in the forenoon. The daughters of the wealthier classes are educated in convents, but an imperial seminary has been founded for the daughters of officers. The principal schools have their collections or museums, by which the arts and sciences that are taught, are illustrated.

The charitable institutions are not less numerous, the most important may be enumerated. The hospital or infirmary in the suburbs of Alser, is remarkable for its large dimensions and the great cleanliness with which it is kept. It contains seven courts planted with trees, a hundred and eleven wards furnished with two thousand beds, and receives annually from fifteen to seventeen hundred patients. The foundling hospital, the imperial orphan hospital, and the deaf and dumb institutions are creditable to the capital.

Mendicants dare not appear in the streets of Vienna; a work-house has been built for all the beggars in the province, and another for vagrants, who are not accused of any crime; but the latter are not allowed, as in France, to have any communication with criminals.

There are in Vienna, as in every other great town, many places of amusement, many ways in which the idle may pass their time. Five theatres are open the greater part of the year, and in the fine season, the public walks and gardens are crowded. The number of coffee-houses amounts to seventy, and the taverns or ordinaries to three hundred.

But the capital is more important as a manufacturing town than any other in the Austrian empire; more than sixty thousand individuals find employment in different branches of industry. The manufactures consist of

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silk and other stuffs, gold and silver lace, ribbons, hardware goods, needles, philosophical instruments and different kinds of paper. The carriages of Vienna are prized in most parts of Germany; there are besides several porcelain works, and one of them employs a hundred and fifty painters and fifteen hundred workmen. The cannon foundry and the manufactory of arms are supported by government. The average number of muskets that issue every year from the imperial manufactory, is said to be equal to thirty thousand. The other articles made in the same town are steel ornaments, jewels, watches, excellent musical instruments and different chemical products.

Commerce.

The capital is thus the central point of Austrian commerce, and of the circulation required to maintain it. The produce of its industry which brings annually a revenue of two millions four hundred thousand florins, gives rise to an exportation sufficient to furnish cargoes to six thousand boats, and merchandise for nearly two millions of waggons. The canal of Neustadt finished in 1803, serves as a communication between the Danube and the metropolis; boats ascend by means of locks to the basin in front of the town-house. Three fairs are held in the town, and the number of mercantile houses of every kind amounts to nearly a thousand.

Fortifications and walls are still kept up round the central part of the town, but Vienna is not a place that can offer much resistance in the event of a siege; the garrison does not exceed ten or twelve thousand men. Although important from its population, it has given birth to few distinguished men; but among them may be mentioned some that have acquired a name in German literature, such as Schrœkh, Collin, Alzinger, Mastalier and the historian Incofer, known from his ecclesiastical annals of Hungary, and by a Latin work, published under a fictitious name,¹ entitled *Monarchia Solipsorum*, a satire against the Jesuits, which was for some time popular in France.^m

¹ In Holland, in the year 1648.

^m It was translated into French in the year 1722.

The luxuries and delicacies of the table are carried to a greater excess at Vienna than at Paris, but they may be had at less expense in the Austrian than in the French capital. Nobles from every part of the empire settle there, and contribute by their wealth to increase its commerce and industry. The indolence and ennui of the rich render many places of amusement necessary, but none are so much frequented as the theatres. If the pieces acted on the stage, are not admired by the other Germans, the fault must be imputed to the dramatic censors appointed by government. Much has not been done in literature, still less in science; music forms the only exception, it has been cultivated with great success. There are few catholic towns, where the people are so punctilious in observing religious forms and ceremonies; no class of the community, no rank or order are free from credulity, superstition or bigotry. But although the inhabitants are ignorant, they are not corrupt, the men are honest, and the domestic virtues are cherished in many families.

More liberty, greater encouragement given to knowledge, by impressing a salutary impulsion on the capital, might produce a great and beneficial change in the whole population of Austria. The vigilance of the police borders on oppression; some of them hold the office of dramatic censors, and they exercise it in a very captious manner; indeed it seems to be full time that the office should be abolished, and the police reformed. The emperor said a few years ago, when returning from the theatre after a first representation, that he was well pleased at having seen the comedy, as he was convinced the censors would condemn it. The truth of the remark was afterwards confirmed.

The stranger observes, not without interest, the bastions that protected the town against the attacks of the Turks. But in later times Vienna was twice taken by the French. The example of so many other capitals that yielded to a victorious chief, may console the Austrians, if any confound success in battle with national honour. The same town was taken in 1241 by Frederick the Second,

BOOK
CXXVII.
Manners.

Sieges of
Vienna.

BOOK duke of Austria, and by the emperor Rodolphus the First
CXXVII. in 1297. It was vainly besieged by the Hungarians in 1477, but obliged to surrender eight years afterwards to Mathias, king of Hungary and Bohemia.

Vienna resisted the Ottoman troops in 1529 and 1683. The recollection of the last siege has been handed down to the present inhabitants. No event was ever likely to be more fatal to Germany, and perhaps to Europe. Kara Mustapha, son-in-law and great vizier of Mahomet the Fourth, excited by the ambition of adding the west to the humiliating yoke of his master, traversed Hungary and entered the Austrian plains with an army of more than two hundred thousand men, and a train of artillery in which were three hundred cannon, very effective engines at that time. Charles the Fifth, duke of Lorraine, compelled to give way to such an overwhelming force, retreated in haste to Vienna. Fear pervaded the inhabitants, and the emperor fled secretly and ingloriously from the capital. It is in such moments that kings feel the misfortune of not being beloved by their people. Leopold having suddenly taken the resolution of flying with his family, past along the fugitive crowd that encumbered the road to Lintz. But it was soon discovered that he was only one among a multitude of sufferers; he and his family were obliged to pass the night in a wood, and the darkness was dispelled by the flames which preceded the Ottoman hordes, and with which Hungary had already been desolated. Terror was at its height in Vienna, all must have been lost but for one man, and that man was John Sobieski. Kara Mustapha had encompassed the town; the count of Starenberg burnt the suburbs, armed the students, and resisted with a feeble garrison of sixteen thousand men; but after twenty-three days siege, the garrison weakened, without provisions, obliged to fight and to extinguish the fires occasioned by bombs, were reduced to despair. The enemy had taken the counterscarp, when Sobieski appeared with seventy-four thousand men; he examined the position and encampments of the vizier; gave

the signal of battle, and the formidable army of Mustapha was cut to pieces. Never was so great an alarm followed by so brilliant a triumph; the booty was immense, Vienna was saved, Christendom freed from the danger that menaced it, by the coolness and intrepidity of a hero. BOOK CXXVII.

The ancient town called *Castra Fabiana* or *Faviana*, Antiquities. and afterwards Vindobona, rose into notice under the first emperors; the tenth Germanic legion was stationed there in the time of Ptolemy; Marcus Aurelius died in the same place; Gallian gave it up to the Marcomani after having married the daughter of their king. Aurelius united it again to the empire.^a While some alterations were making about two years ago in the botanical gardens, several antiquities were discovered, such as coins, different pieces of money, vases, bricks and other relics, from which it appears that the site of the garden was formerly within the enclosure of Vindobona. When the chapel of the Capuchius was enlarged, a chapel that served as a place of interment for the emperors, there were discovered much about the same time a Roman tomb, fragments of funeral vases, and other articles, which render it probable that the road from Vindobona to Rome passed near the present convent.

We have already mentioned the beauty of the neighbouring country; the castles and country houses on the heights are so numerous that it would be no easy matter to describe those only which belong to the imperial family. Neighbourhood. Schœnbrunn was built by Mary Theresa. It is remarkable for the extent of the buildings, the fineness of the gardens, and the profusion of rare and valuable plants in the conservatories. Laxenburg, a Gothic castle belonging to the emperor, is encompassed with ditches and other works that give it the appearance of a small fortress. The interior is decorated in the same style as the exterior, and contains many curiosities of the middle ages. It forms a singular contrast with its modern gardens, and even with the regularity of the burgh at the base of its walls.

^a See the excellent work of the Baron of Hormayer, *Vien seine Geschichte und seine Denkvürdigkeiten*.

BOOK
CXXVII.

Villages.

The village of Maria-Hitzing near Schoenbrunn has been considered the finest and most picturesque in Austria. It possesses a theatre, and is visited on account of its baths. Penzing is known from its ribbon manufactories, and Meidling from its mineral waters. Several country houses are situated near these villages.

Towns.

We may quit that part of the country where the houses of the wealthy rival each other in elegance, where their grounds laid out with great taste give to the basin of Vienna the appearance of an immense garden. The towns now to be mentioned are situated on the plains of Lower Austria. Kloster-Neuburg, on the banks of the Danube, deserves to be noticed, not on account of its population, which does not exceed three thousand two hundred inhabitants, but on account of a magnificent convent belonging to the Augustines. The town is decorated with a fine church, in which the ducal crown of Austria is deposited; it has besides a seminary, a valuable library containing more than four hundred manuscripts, and a collection of natural history and medals.

Baden.

Baden at some leagues to the south of the capital, is commanded on the east by verdant hills, while a fruitful plain extends to the west. The population does not amount to three thousand persons, but its baths, the efficacy of which in rheumatic affections has been acknowledged, are so much frequented that more than five thousand strangers resort to them in some seasons. Walks have been made in the neighbourhood, and the parks and pleasure grounds of the different proprietors are open to strangers.

Neustadt.

Neustadt or Vienerisch-Neustadt has been considered, after the capital, the finest town in the archduchy; the number of its inhabitants, according to M. Thielen; is equal to eight thousand three hundred.^o It is adorned with three large squares, the houses are well built, the streets are straight and regular. It possesses several semi-

* Alphabetisch Topographisches Postreise-Handbuch für den Oesterreichischen Kaiserstadt, &c. by M. F. Thielen. Vienna, 1827.

naries, and a military school attended by five hundred pupils. The canal, which has been already mentioned, passes from the town, and serves to supply Vienna with fire-wood, coal and stones for building. BOOK
CXXVII.

The summit of the Schneeberg is about five leagues to Schneeberg. the west of Neustadt. That mountain is visited by a greater number of strangers than any other in lower Austria. It is covered with mists nine months in the year, and none need ascend it, unless the weather be serene and cloudless. After having mounted a short distance on the most frequented road, the spectator observes below him, a narrow and deep valley, part of which is occupied by a lake. Having past the region of trees, he arrives at a sort of platform, on which a house has been built for the accommodation of travellers that may wish to remain during the night. Lichens are the only plants that grow above the inn, the remaining part of the journey is not without danger, it is necessary to climb naked rocks, and to avoid frightful precipices. The height of the summit is such as to command a most extensive horizon. The eye wanders over as fine a panorama as can well be imagined; the wooded heights of the Werner-Wald and the Manhartsberg appear on the north; Vienna seems like a village, and the Danube like a stream in a verdant plain. It is not difficult to count all the towns, and although the distance is so great as to make them resemble so many points on a geographical map, there is no summit from which a stranger can at once form a more correct notion of the wealth and importance of the archduchy. The view towards the south is bounded by the chain of the Alps, a chain more than a hundred and twenty miles in length; on the west are seen the mountains in Upper Austria, the Salzburgh Alps and those of the Tyrol, while the vast Hungarian plain extends on the south-east to the neighbourhood of Raab and Ofen. Of all the towns that may be observed in ascending the canal of Neustadt, those only have been mentioned which are situated in that direction; the description of Upper Austria may therefore be completed by giv-

BOOK ing an account of the towns that are seen from the Schnee-
CXXVII. berg.

Towns seen
from the

Schneeberg, and on the banks of the Leitha, may be mentioned on account of its custom-house, and a large square watered by a fountain. Haimburg contains three thousand inhabitants, and carries on a greater trade in tobacco than any other town in Austria. Krems and Stein are seen towards the west, on the left bank of the Danube; the one is peopled by three thousand six hundred inhabitants, and the other by fifteen hundred. They are separated from each other by an alley of trees, and two rows of houses, which may probably account for a popular saying; *Krems and Stein are three towns*. Krems carries on a considerable trade in proportion to the number of its inhabitants; they are employed in different branches of industry. But the commerce of Stein lasts only a part of the year, or while the river is favourable for navigation. A castle now in ruins rises above Durrenstein, it was there that Richard *Cœur de Lion* was unjustly confined. Moelk, although only a burgh, is remarkable for its large convent, inhabited by Benedictines, for its gymnasium, library and collection of antiquities. *Saint Pölten*, a place of four thousand inhabitants, and the chief town of a diocese, is situated between the Danube and the Wiener-Wald in a fruitful plain covered with cultivated fields, gardens and rich meadows. Other places though less important, may be shortly enumerated. The people of Awischofen are employed in making glass. Aloosdorf carries on a trade in saffron, and Mistelbach in different kinds of grain; it is peopled by three thousand inhabitants. Aleiben is noted for its royal sheep-folds, which are supposed to be the largest in Austria. Maria-Taferl, a village built on a height, is not less celebrated for its religious processions, more than a hundred thousand pilgrims visit it every year. Riesenbergr was the birth-place of the famous composer Haydn, and Wagram or Teusch-Wagram stands on the plain, where the French were victorious in 1809.

The capital of Upper Austria is a place of some importance; Lintz so called from Lentia, its name in the time of the Romans, contains a population of twenty thousand souls. The town is neither so populous nor so well built as the suburbs. The ornaments in the great square, are not perhaps accordant with correct taste, a pillar erected by Charles the Fourth to the holy trinity rises in the centre, on the right and left are two fountains, the one decorated with a figure of Neptune, and the other with a statue of Jupiter. The public buildings are nowise remarkable, but the town possesses different places of education, several charitable institutions and important manufactories. Although the mountains in Bohemia protect it from the north winds, Reaumur's thermometer descends frequently to fourteen or fifteen degrees. The west winds which are very common, are disagreeable and unwholesome.

BOOK
CXXVII.
Towns in
Upper
Austria.

Steyer on the Ens, a town of nine thousand inhabitants, Steyer-rises in a valley, watered by a small river of the same name. The Burg, an old castle belonging to the prince of Lamberg, is the only edifice worthy of notice, and its fountains are considered its greatest ornaments. The utmost activity prevails in it, almost all the inhabitants are engaged in trade or in some department of industry. It is there that iron appears to be of greater utility than gold; many thousand hands convert the metal that is brought from the mines into every variety of form. Numerous hammers are moved by the Ens, which serves likewise to transport the merchandise of the town. Steyer exports files to Germany, Switzerland, Italy and the Levant, razors for less than a florin the dozen to the east, penknives for fifteen or twenty florins the thousand to Moravia, Silesia and Galicia, shoemakers' instruments to Germany, Switzerland and France. A great many iron waggons are sent to Steyer from forty manufactories at the base of mount Priel; these as well as other articles are exported to different countries in Europe.

The town of Ens is situated near the confluence of that Ens-river with the Danube; it contains three thousand inhabitants, and if it be true that it formed one town with Lorck,

BOOK the Roman Laureacum, it must have been at that time a
CXXVII. place of great importance. The principal ornament of the town is an old tower built by the emperor Maximilian.

Gmunden. Gmunden on the lake of Traun, contains a population of three thousand souls; the town is pleasantly situated and neatly built, the government offices of the mines are its finest buildings. The beauty of its position depends principally on the lake, which is nearly eight miles in length and more than one in breadth; its waters are of a greenish colour, but they become nearly black during stormy weather.

Garsten. Garsten, a benedictine chapter situated in the vicinity, was founded eight hundred years ago. The church is not less remarkable for its architecture than for its fine paintings and numerous ornaments; within its walls may still be seen the tomb of Ottocar the Fourth. But the chapter cannot be compared with that of Krems-Munster, founded in the year 777 by Tassilo, duke of Bavaria. The edifice, the observatory, the large library, and valuable collections of natural history and philosophical instruments, are in unison with the magnificence of the interior, and the elegance of the gardens, they render the monastery superior to any other in Germany. The neighbourhood is remarkable for its springs; they deposit on the plants a sediment of calcareous matter in such abundance that it is used in building.

Halstadt. The commerce of Halstadt is confined to the produce of its salt mines, which yield every year about fifty thousand hundredweights. A lake, of which the depth has never been measured, is situated near its walls; it is equal in length to eight thousand four hundred yards, and in breadth to eleven hundred; its waters abound with excellent fish. It has been supposed that Branau, which now contains three thousand inhabitants, stands on the site of the Roman Bundunum. The small town of Montzee is built on the banks of a lake nearly five miles long, two and a half broad, and at the centre four hundred yards in depth. The cataract of Bochsfall, falls from a rock four hundred feet in height, at no great distance from the village of Bischofshofen.

Salzburg, one of the finest towns in the archduchy, is the only other place of which it is necessary to give some account. It has been called at different times, *Juvavium*, *Hadriana* and *Petena*. It was ruined by Attila in the year 448, and afterwards rebuilt by the Bavarian dukes, at the request of St. Rupert. The Salzach separates two regular and well built quarters, a rampart encompasses the town, and three suburbs extend beyond the entrance. It contains fourteen thousand inhabitants, but the population corresponds ill with the size of the town; deserted streets, and uniform houses, built after the Italian style, give it a gloomy aspect. The principal entrance, cut through a rock, is about a hundred and fifty feet in length, and from twenty to twenty-four in breadth. A marble statue of fifteen feet, representing Saint Sigismund, is placed on the summit of the entrance. A large fountain adorns one square, and another, that of the cathedral, is surrounded by arcades. The church was built after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, and a much admired statue of the virgin stands on the principal front. Salzburg gave birth to the famous Paracelsus, his ashes repose in the cemetery of Saint Sebastian. The remains of ancient Roman baths, from which many valuable antiquities have been collected, are situated near the hospital of St. John. Salzburg is the only fortress in Upper Austria; the climate is very variable, and on that account unwholesome.

The Austrians are sober, faithful in their engagements, particularly in their duty to their sovereign. Like plants, they may be distinguished by the nature of the soil, at least the difference is apparent between the inhabitants of the wine and grain countries. The natives of the plains are strong and muscular, those in the mountains are light and active.

The importance of the revenue might be inferred from what has been said of the industry that prevails in the country. It amounts in Lower Austria to 26,000,000 florins, but in Upper Austria it does not exceed 8,000,000.

BOOK CXXVIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued.—Germany.—Twelfth Section.—Country of Tyrol, and Dutchy of Styria.

BOOK CXXVIII. SNOW covered mountains and arid rocks are the first objects that the traveller observes on entering Tyrol and Styria. The narrow and sinuous vallies in the Tyrol unite with the wildness of a natural, the riches of a cultivated country; in Styria the plains are much larger, particularly in the south and the east; in both the climate is most variable.

Possession of the Tyrol by the dukes of Austria. Tyrol derives its name from an ancient castle near Meran, on a mountain that commands the Adige. The country passed by inheritance to the dukes of Austria in the year 1363. It is bounded on the north by Bavaria, on the west by Switzerland, on the south and the east by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, Illyria and Upper Austria. According to Blumenbach, its surface is equal to five hundred and twenty German, or six thousand two hundred and forty English square miles.

Appearance of the country. The two sides of the Rhetian Alps, which form the continuation of those in Switzerland, make up the greater part of the Tyrol. To have a notion of the country, one must imagine mountains apparently as high as Mont Blanc, that none have ever attempted to ascend, dismal precipices, lofty cataracts, glaciers of several leagues in ex-

tent; on one side the frozen north wind, on the other, the sultry blast of the sirocco. BOOK
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If the traveller be placed near the sources of the Inn, he may observe on the right, a chain less extensive than the others, which bears the name of Arlberg, or the Eagle mountains; hence the north-west part of the province has been denominated Vorarlberg or the country in front of the Eagle mountains. Another and higher chain extends from west to east, and forms what the ancients called the Rhetian Alps, its name was derived from the Roman province of Rhætia. The continuation of the chain in the same direction was styled the Norican Alps, because the lands on both sides made up the Roman Noricum; they terminate at the confines of Styria and Austria. A chain that extends from the sources of the Mur to the extremities of Styria, has received the name of the Styrian Alps.

Tschernowand is next to Orteles, the highest summit in the Rhetian Alps.^p The most extensive glaciers are the Gebatsch and the Rofner. The rivers that rise from the Arlberg, are the Isar, the Lech, the Iller and the Inn. The Etsch or the Adige which throws itself into the Adriatic Gulf, and the Drave which unites with the Danube, after having traversed Illyria and part of Hungary, take their rise from the glaciers in the great chain.

Many primitive rocks are situated both on the southern sides of the Rhetian Alps, and in the valley of the Adige. A distinguished geologist has made important observations on the singular arrangement of the calcareous rocks. They are formed by the substance called *dolomia*, which consists of magnesia and carbonate of lime; but nothing indeed can be more surprising than the inaccessible heights and bold forms that these rocks assume near the valley of Tassa; they appear to surpass what the imagination can conceive.^q M. de Buch concludes that the white granular and almost

^p It is upwards of twelve thousand feet in height.

^q M. de Buch, Memoirs of the royal academy of Berlin, January 1822, February 1823.

BOOK friable limestone had been compact, coloured, stratified and
CXXVIII. filled with organic bodies, before the porphyry which supports it had by penetrating into the magnesia, destroyed the organic remains and changed its characters. The porphyry has experienced so great shocks as to have raised into the air the colossal masses that surmount it.

It is unnecessary to enter into the original views of so great a geologist as M. de Buch, but it may be added that they appear to be very probable, for the volcanic substances which characterize the porphyry, seem to connect it with igneous products. M. de Buch however goes further, for he supposes all the mountainous chains in the country to have been modified by similar shocks; that opinion may be afterwards confirmed by other phenomena. Our limits prevent us from examining more minutely the geological formation of the Rhetian Alps. Their elevation, and the account already given of the country round Salzburg, prove that all the rocks which may be considered primitive, are contained in them.

According to a geological professor, whom we have had already occasion to quote, coal is found in the mountains of Styria, but the deposits in the valley of the Mur, which
Lignites. might be worked with profit, appear to be lignites rather than coal. They lie in the midst of sandstone, argil and marl mixed with shells, and these substances encompass and support the intermediate mountains in the country. The large valley is filled with deposits of the third formation.

Plants. The vegetable riches of the Tyrol mountains are well known to botanists; they find on them many leguminous, cruciform and composite plants, *Archides labiates*, *Cytisi*, *Genistæ*, *Euphorbia* and *Loti*. The air is embalmed by the fragrance diffused from the *Silene nutans*. The *Lantsch* near Groetz, at the extremity of the calcareous heights in Styria, affords shelter to plants, which appear to be for

* M. Riepl, Professor of Natural History in the Polytechnic Institute of Vienna.

ever removed from the reach of the botanist. The woods BOOK
CXXVIII. that cover its summits are the only places where the *Delphinium intermedium* grows, it reaches to the height of five feet, and charms the eye with its fine blue flowers. The only *Pellaria alliacea* that flourish in a wild state are found on the sides of the same mountain.

Ferruginous waters have been discovered in different Mineral
springs. parts of the Tyrol, but no warm mineral springs.

The oxen, cows and horses are small, but of a good Animals. kind; goats are more numerous than sheep, and different kinds of game are very common. Wolves, wild boars and bears haunt the forests, the clefts in the rocks afford shelter to marmots, and the chamois finds refuge on the highest summits, or in places where the hunter cannot approach.

Little knowledge has been obtained concerning the people Ancient in-
habitants. that inhabited Tyrol before the time of the Rhoeti. They were composed of different tribes, the *Vennonii* or *Vennones*, whom Ptolemy and Strabo mention, and the *Brixantés*, whose chief town was probably built on the site of Brixen. Pliny informs us that they emigrated from Etruria. It may be concluded that they were obliged to leave their territory, as it is very improbable that a nation would renounce voluntarily so fine a country as Etruria, to settle in such a country as Tyrol. The Rhoeti were subdued by the Romans in the time of Augustus, and their territory received the name of *Rætia Prima*, the lands of the *Vendelici* were called *Rætia Secunda*.

Different metals are found in the Tyrol, but not in Metals. such quantities as to be of much value. Thus the gold collected annually does not exceed a hundred marks; silver is also scarce, what is obtained must be extracted from lead. The copper is supposed to be more malleable, and, consequently, harder than in other countries; but iron is more common than any of the metals. The other substances that may be mentioned are cobalt, zinc, arsenic, sulphur and salt. The salt mines are the continuation of

• Strabo, Lib. IV.

BOOK those in Salzburg, and one of them near Hall yields every
CXXVIII. year twenty-five thousand quintals.

**Agricul-
ture.**

Although the revenue which government derives from the mines may be inconsiderable, the people contrive to gain a subsistence by them. Agriculture has been brought to a great degree of perfection; the Tyrolians use their lands to the best advantage. Much labour and care are bestowed on the soil; vegetable mould is transported to high summits; the grass which grows on the sides of steep declivities, is collected for the cattle, even the atmospheric action by which rocks are decomposed, is rendered profitable to the husbandmen, who convey these remains to cultivated fields. The stranger observes not without amazement the Tyrolian peasant with a basket on his head, descending inaccessible rocks, by means of a rope and a stick, to the bottom of a precipice, in order that he may gain a few feet of land, and devote it to agriculture.

Vineyards.

The hills favourable to the vine are covered with plants; it is true, that the wine which they produce does not keep a long time, but although it may on that account be unfit for exportation, it forms the materials of an inland commerce. The vineyards are most numerous in the valley of the Adige; they cover the heights in the neighbourhood of Brixen and Tramin, those near the latter town are considered the most valuable. The Tyrolian cultivates fruit trees, but the forests are much more important, he exports timber for building to Venice.

Population.

But although the people be as industrious as possible, the country cannot furnish the means of subsistence to seven hundred and sixty-two thousand inhabitants.[†] The people must find employment elsewhere, they must have recourse to other pursuits besides agriculture. Some have no other wealth than their flocks, but it could hardly be imagined that the birds which have been transported from the Canaries to Europe, where they are prized both for their notes and their plumage, form by no means an

[†] Such is the number of inhabitants according to the calculation of M. Thielen. See his *Manual*, Vienna, 1827.

insignificant branch of trade. The people are compelled to gain a livelihood in any way, and they do not disdain to wander in foreign countries and to earn a subsistence by selling canaries. There are few manufactories in Tyrol, but almost every Tyrolian is a workman or manufacturer. Many for want of a better employment travel as pedlars through the most distant countries, and return in old age with enough to enable them to pass the rest of their days in their native land. At six years of age the Tyrolian quits his mountains, sets out for the fair of Kempten in Bavaria, and renders himself useful by herding geese or cattle; at a later period he migrates as a mason, carpenter or miner; thus more than thirty thousand individuals leave their country every year. Some preferring a hunter's life traverse their mountains, endure all sorts of fatigue, and expose themselves to the greatest dangers to attain their prey; others wander in quest of medicinal plants, which they learn from their infancy, and know as correctly as the ablest botanists.

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Among those who remain at home, some execute different works in wood with great skill; the vast forests in the Vorarlberg supply them with the materials of making wooden shops, and even houses, of which the different pieces are numbered, and transported to the lake of Constance, and from thence to neighbouring countries. It seems as if the Tyrolians were naturally mechanics; ingenious instruments, such as may supply the want of hands, are moved by the streams that water their vallies; wheels fashioned for that purpose, are set in motion at different distances. Do they require flour, or stand in need of oil? as every individual provides in some respects for his own wants, there are neither millers nor oil mills, but at the neighbouring stream, the corn is ground, and the oleaginous plants are pressed. A German traveller declares that he has seen a child rocked in his cradle by means of a wheel made to revolve by a stream. " While the men are

" M. Rohrer. See also Voyage dans le Tyrol by M. de Bray.

BOOK CXXVIII. engaged in different branches of labour, the women are not idle, some knit stockings, others make goat skin gloves, embroider muslin, or plait straw which is manufactured into hats. But manufacturing industry is confined to the making of a few articles; thus velvet is made in some places, and carpets in others, particularly in the burghs on the valley of Lientz. The transit trade between Germany and Italy forms a more important and extensive branch of commerce.

Character. Frankness, fidelity, loyalty and love of country are the virtues that distinguish the Tyrolians. Averse to the conscription, because friendly to independence and liberty, none fight with greater bravery in defence of their country. Not corrupted by the usages of large towns, sincere in their domestic relations, peace and gaiety reign in their families. Devout, but also superstitious, they must have a religion that attracts by its ceremonies, that speaks to the imagination as well as to the heart, they people the summits of the mountains, and the gloomy forests which encompass them, with supernatural beings, spirits, demons and wizards. Such being the case, it is not wonderful that there are no protestants in Tyrol; all the inhabitants, with the exception of eight or ten Jewish families, are catholics.

Constitution. The Tyrolians enjoy more political liberty than the people in any other Austrian province. Government ratified their ancient privileges in 1816, and granted them a constitution better adapted for their wants. While the people in other countries, subject to Austria, are represented by the clergy, nobility and deputies from a few towns; the Tyrolian states are not only composed of members belonging to these orders, but also of others elected by the peasantry. The people in Vorarlberg possess other prerogatives, in which the rest of the inhabitants do not participate.

Military force. The conscription has been abolished, but government has found that measure an additional security against a foreign invasion, for every Tyrolian becomes a soldier in

time of war. The people are hardy, active and accustomed to fatigue, few armies can have much chance of resisting them, when they rise simultaneously to defend their country. They furnish only to the government that protects them, four battalions of light armed troops. Although no custom-houses are erected on the frontiers, the revenue is considerable, it amounts to more than two millions five hundred thousand Austrian florins.

There are in the county of Tyrol, twenty-two towns, ^{Towns and} thirty-six burghs and three thousand one hundred and ^{villages.} fifty villages. Some of the villages are as populous as the towns, but the greater number are small and insignificant. Bregenz, situated in Vorarlberg, on the banks of the lake of Constance, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity; the remains of Roman buildings are still seen near its ancient castle. The village of Achenrein derives its wealth from its founderies and iron works; the laminated copper and white iron that are sent from these works, yield a clear profit of sixty-five thousand florins. Innsbruck, a burgh of three thousand inhabitants, on the banks of the Inn, exports canaries to the remotest countries in Europe; the trade is said to produce annually more than L.4800. Scharnitz, on the frontiers of Bavaria, is the ancient Roman town of Porta Claudia.

Innsbruck or rather Innsbruck, which signifies a bridge ^{Capital.} on the Inn, stands in the middle of a valley, formed by mountains from six to eight thousand feet in height, and covered with snow even in the months of May and June. It is the capital of Tyrol. Although the town be small and ill built, the suburbs consist of modern houses,—the residences of the nobles and the wealthy. The palace situated in a square adorned with a bronze equestrian statue of Leopold the Fifth, the court church containing the tombs of twenty-eight distinguished personages, and a monument to the memory of the emperor Maximilian, and lastly, the large and spacious town-house are the only public buildings that can be mentioned.

BOOK in the capital. The celebrated globe of Peter Anich, a
CXXVIII. Tyrolian shepherd, who became an eminent geographer, is
 preserved in the hall of the university.

Hall,
 Schwatz,
 &c.

Hall, which lies below Innspruck, is the chief town in the district of the salt mines; it contains four thousand two hundred inhabitants; its extensive salt works are five thousand feet above the level of the sea. Schwatz, one of the largest burghs in the province, is peopled by more than seven thousand four hundred inhabitants, two thousand of whom find employment in the mines within its territory, which produce a great quantity of iron, two thousand five hundred quintals of copper, and three thousand five hundred marks of silver. Zierl, another village on the Inn, is commanded by steep heights and rugged rocks, from which the emperor Maximilian the First made a narrow escape. The prince, ardent in the chase, advanced so far that he must have perished, had it not been for the coolness and intrepidity of an attendant. The people tell the story, and show the place where a cross forty feet in height, has been erected to commemorate the event; but superstitious, and fond of the miraculous, they believe that the emperor was saved by an angel.

Sterzing, a town of two thousand inhabitants, was called *Urbs Stiriacorum* by the Romans; * it carries on a considerable trade in iron and wines. Botzen on the Rienz, appears rather like an Italian than a German town; the valley on which it stands, is covered with vineyards and fruit trees, adorned with country houses, and bounded by lofty trees that rise in the form of an amphitheatre. But the interior of the town does not correspond with its appearance at a distance, for the streets are dirty, crooked and narrow. The population amounts to seven thousand individuals.

Trent. Although the inhabitants give the name of fortifications to walls ten feet in height, *Trente*, or, as it is called in Germany, *Trient*, could hardly resist an attack in time of war.

* See Handbuch für reisende in dem Oesterreichischen Kaiserstate, by M. R. Jenny.

Broad and regular streets, well built houses, fine paintings in the churches, and a celebrated university render it like an Italian town, indeed the illusion would be complete, if its fifteen thousand inhabitants spoke the Italian language. Trente is well known on account of its council, which lasted from the year 1545 to 1563. The mountains that rise on both banks of the Adige, are not the lowest in the Alps. The climate is excessively warm in summer, and intensely cold in winter.

Roveredo, situated in the pleasant valley of Lagarina, Roveredo. carries on a considerable trade in fruits and silk. The town, originally small and ill built, was improved as the population increased; it contains at present more than twelve thousand inhabitants. Pieve, Castello and Cinte are villages of which the trade consists in pictures. Bren-tonico exports the greenish talc used by painters, and known by the name of *terra di Verona*.

The dutchy of Styria is bounded by the kingdom of Styria. Illyria, the archdutchy of Austria, and the kingdom of Hungary. It may be equal in superficial extent to three hundred and ninety-nine German, or four thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight English square miles. Several important chains are situated in that mountainous region; on the north, the Norican Alps, on the east the Styrian, and on the west a branch of the Julian Alps. The highest mountains are those in the north, and the lowest are others in the opposite direction or the south; so that the country is thus divided into Upper and Lower Styria. The principal rivers are the Ens, the Mur and the Drave. The basin of the Mur is larger than any other; that river

† The following Styrian mountains have not been mentioned in the tables in the preceding volume.

Eisenhut	.	.	.	7,676 feet.
Upper Grimming	.	.	.	7,546
Stang Alpe	.	.	.	7,140
Kempel	.	.	.	4,798
Schoekel	.	.	.	4,778
Erzberg	.	.	.	4,590

BOOK receives more than a hundred feeders; it turns ninety-eight
CXXVIII. flour mills, forty-three saw mills and sixty fullers' mills. Its declivity is so great as to give it almost the velocity of a torrent; for the same reason the ice never remains any length of time; the oldest inhabitants do not recollect to have seen it frozen. Fish abounds in all the rivers, but particularly in the Mur; although carp are not so common, trouts, umber, pike and barbel are taken in great numbers.² The lakes are numerous, but none of them are very large. What has been already said concerning the geological structure of the principal chains, renders it unnecessary to recur to the subject; but some account may be given of the ancient and present inhabitants of the country.

Ancient in-
habitants.

The Romans comprehended under the name of Noricum, a great part of Styria. The Norici were governed by a king, when their country became a Roman province in the time of Augustus. According to Ptolemy, Noricum was inhabited by several tribes. The *Ambisontii* possessed the west and the north, the *Ambidrani*, *Ambilici* and principally the *Norici* were settled in the east and the south. The hordes of Alaric made themselves masters of the country, and their chief wished to erect there the seat of his empire; but he pursued the course of his conquests, and the *Suevi*, *Herules* and *Huns* succeeded him in Styria. It was for a long time subject to Bavaria,³ but the emperor Conrad the Second made it a margraviate in the year 1030. Raised into a dutchy by Frederick the First, it passed in 1186 by right of succession to the house of Austria. Separated from Austria, it was again divided in 1232; lastly, it was conquered by Ottocar the Second, king of Bohemia, but Rodolphus of Habsburg having been raised to the imperial throne, took possession of it, and it has since continued an Austrian province.⁴

Character
of the in-
habitants;

The country, it has been seen, was the theatre of frequent wars during the middle ages; but it is still easy to distinguish two sorts of inhabitants, the Germans and the

* M. Schmtz. See also Steyermark Zeitschreib. 1821.

² Marianus, *Topographia Styriæ*.

Wendes, a people sprung from the Slavonians. The first forms a population of about six hundred thousand individuals, and the latter of two hundred thousand; they reside chiefly in the circles of Cilly and Marburg. They differ in their language and character from the other inhabitants. The German Styrian or the native of Upper Styria is strong and well made, honest, frank and industrious. The Wende Styrians, or the natives of Lower Styria, are weak in body, frivolous, dissipated, and superstitious.^b The greater part of the population adheres to the catholic religion; the number of protestants amounts hardly to three thousand. As to the Jews, they are not permitted to reside in the dutchy.

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The air is keen and often very cold in the mountains of Upper Styria; but the temperature in the vallies is warmer than in most other Alpine plains. The mean temperature at Gröetz is from seven to eight degrees of Reaumur, and the height of the barometer about twenty-seven inches. The climate of Lower Styria is so mild that the grape arrives at maturity; the wines may be drunk soon after they are made, the most of them are of a good quality, and some not inferior in strength to the Rhenish wines.

The grain harvests are not abundant, but the lint is remarkable for its length and fineness. Vegetables, fruits, and leguminous plants flourish, and the forests are so extensive that their surface is supposed to be equal to half of the whole country. The lands are fruitful and well cultivated in the vallies; the cattle in the mountains are of a good kind, indeed they are considered the best in the Austrian empire; in every district the sheep-folds are numerous, and the country people rear besides a great quantity of poultry. The sportsman finds the red partridge, quails, grouse, different kinds of game, and flocks of chamois on the mountains. If the herds and flocks have diminished within the last twenty years, it must be

Agricultural produce.

^b Hassel's Geography.

BOOK attributed to disastrous wars and additional taxes,—the necessary consequence of these wars.
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Mines.

The riches of the country consist principally in its mines, the Romans were supplied from Styria with excellent iron, and that metal is still obtained in such abundance that it may be considered inexhaustible. Styrian steel is better than any other in Europe. Silver, copper, and lead, coal and rock salt are obtained in different parts of the country, and it is to the metals obtained from the mines that the industry of the inhabitants is principally directed. There are more than thirty-six scythe manufactories in Styria, and its exports are diffused over Austria, Hungary and even the Ottoman empire; they may be estimated at one million eight hundred thousand florins.

Constitution or government.

Styria is divided into five circles, of which the chief towns are Graetz, Bruck, Judenburg, Marburg and Cilly. It is governed like most other provinces under the Austrian empire. The members of the states form three classes; the upper nobles, among whom are included the bishops; the petty nobles, and the deputies of towns and burghs entitled to be represented in the assemblies. The country furnishes several regiments of infantry and a certain number of men for the cavalry.

Towns, villages, &c.

In that mountainous region which reaches to the extremity of Styria, the stranger may form some idea of the wealth and population of the dutchy by surveying the principal towns and inhabited places that extend from north to south. The burgh of Aussee is situated near a lake, and at the junction of three rivers which form the Traun. The produce of several salt mines that are worked in its neighbourhood, exceeds a hundred and sixty thousand quintals. Not far from the village of Mirnitz is situated a cave worthy of notice from its extent, sinuations, the stalactites that cover it, and the fossil bones formerly held in veneration by the peasantry. Eisenerz, a burgh of which the church was founded by Rodolphus of Habsburg, is surrounded by mines from which more than two hundred

and sixty thousand hundredweights of iron are obtained every year. BOOK CXXVIII.

Zell or Maria Zell towards the north east, on the frontier of Styria, has been termed the Loretto of the country ; it is certainly more frequented by pilgrims than any other place in the Austrian empire. The church is perhaps the finest, and without doubt the largest in Styria. The organ is not considered inferior to any other in Germany, the large pulpit is formed of red marble, the chapel has been enriched by the offerings of pilgrims ; the adored image of the virgin is placed on a silver altar, and the gate that leads from the church to the chapel is made of the same metal. The gold, silver and other valuable articles deposited in the treasury attest the pious offerings of the hundred thousand pilgrims that repair every year to the shrine of the virgin. Bruck on the Mur is the metropolis of a circle, and the inhabitants are employed in working slate quarries and productive mines within its territory. The capuchins have a convent in its neighbourhood. On the same river and above Bruck, is situated Leoben, one of the best built towns in Upper Styria. The preliminaries of the peace between France and Austria were signed within its walls in 1797. Judenburg situated above Leoben, although the chief town of a circle, contains only fifteen hundred inhabitants. It was a place of some consequence in the time of the Romans ; during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, it was principally inhabited by Jews, hence the origin of its present name. As its great trade was then in the hands of the Jews, their prosperity brought against them the hatred and persecution of the Christians, who succeeded in expelling or extirpating them about the year 1312. The town was almost wholly consumed by fire in 1807, and the inhabitants had much difficulty in repairing their losses ; the Franciscan convent has been converted into an inn, and the ducal castle into barracks. Rohitsck appears to have been once a Roman town, at all events many ancient coins, vases and other articles of antiquity have been found in

BOOK CXXVIII. it. Strangers frequent it on account of its mineral waters, and it exports annually more than eight hundred thousand bottles to Poland, Hungary and Italy.

Grätz. Grätz or Gratz, the metropolis of a circle, and the capital of the province, is situated in the fine valley of the Mur. Its population amounts to forty thousand inhabitants, the greater number of them reside in the suburbs. According to a German traveller, Herren street is the largest, Sporr street, the most inconvenient, Schmidt street, the most noisy, and Mur street, the most crowded.^c The public buildings are the cathedral, the theatre, the town-house and the government palace in which the states meet. Grätz contains ten parish churches and twelve chapels of ease, five convents of men and two of women. Several hospitals may be mentioned among the charitable institutions, one for sick, another for women in labour, a third for the insane, and a fourth for orphans. An university, a drawing academy, a commercial seminary, gymnasia for boys, and boarding schools for girls, are the principal places of education. A library containing a hundred thousand volumes and three thousand five hundred manuscripts, the botanical garden, the museums of natural history, medals and antiquities, and the *Johanneum*, an institution so called from the name of the prince its founder,^d are considered the most valuable scientific collections. A Calvary, a church and several chapels are situated on a height in the neighbourhood. The town is a place of considerable importance from its commerce and manufactures.

Radkersburg.

Radkersburg, which might be surnamed the romantic, stands on an island in the middle of the Mur. The fortifications are in bad repair, and insufficient to protect it against the frequent inundations of the river. The village of Rieggersburg is built on an eminence at no great distance from the last town. Its ancient castle is remarkable for its picturesque situation, for the fortifications cut in the

^c M. Rud. de Jenny.

^d The Archduke John.

rock, the deep ditches and the relics of the middle ages that are contained in it. It was of late rendered illustrious by a man of genius who paid a tribute of affection to its ancient proprietors.^c BOOK
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The burgh of Leibnitz was perhaps the ancient Mureola, a town mentioned by Ptolemy ; at least the opinion is rendered probable by the numerous antiquities and sculptures that have been found at different times, and the Roman inscriptions that may still be seen on the tower of Skau-berg which was built in the thirteenth century.

Marburg, at the confluence of the Drave and the Mur, Marburg. contains five thousand inhabitants. Although the metropolis of a circle, it possesses no public building of any consequence ; it carries on, however, a considerable trade in corn and wine. The small town of Pettau is situated on the left bank of the Drave ; the population does not exceed seventeen hundred inhabitants, but it has its convents of dominicans, minorites and capuchins. It is considered the most ancient town in Styria, many suppose it to have been built before the country was conquered by the Romans ; there is, however, reason to believe that it was then situated on the other bank of the river.

Luttemberg on the east of Pettau, is famous for its wines. The town of Cilly is adorned with a castle in which many valuable antiquities are preserved. It was founded by the emperor Claudius, who gave it the name of *Claudia* ; its present walls are partly built with the remains of ancient buildings, but the barracks which have been lately erected, form the finest edifice in the place. According to the legends, Maximilian, the first bishop of Cilly, was decapitated in the town about the year 284. A third Toeplitz, which is also known for its mineral waters, is situated below the mountains on the south of Cilly. Rann, a small town encompassed with walls now in ruins, lies near the southern extremity of the province, on the banks of the Save. The lands in the neighbourhood are

^c M. de Hummer, the orientalist.

BOOK CXXVIII. fruitful, and wine forms the principal branch of its commerce. The rapid waters of the Save are covered with empty casks at the approach of autumn; they are bound together and steered by mariners who descend to the town and sell them to the inhabitants during the vintage. It is supposed that Rann was the *Novidunum* of the Romans; it was pillaged and destroyed by the Turks after a sanguinary battle in the year 1475.

Voitzberg. Voitzberg, a district situated to the west of Grætz on the left bank of the Mur, is surrounded by mountains which separate it from Upper Styria and Illyria. The highest part of the country is exposed for seven months in the year to the rigours of winter, to frequent and violent storms. But the vallies in the lower part of the country abound in fruits and wine. The inhabitants export coal, sharpening stones that are much prized in Styria, and draught horses of a good kind. The people are industrious, they are employed in their iron works, nail manufactories, paper mills and brick kilns; many of them however are subject to goitres. The small town of Voitzberg, three burghs and twenty villages are contained in the district.

Population of the two sexes. The number of women throughout Styria exceeds that of the men by nearly twenty-six thousand;† the latter are supposed to be equal to three hundred and seventy-four thousand. Five is considered the average number of members in each family, and all the families, it has been calculated, amount to 160,500.‡

† See Steyermark Zeitschr. 1821.

‡ The reader will find some details concerning the population and agricultural wealth of the country, in the statistical tables at the end of the next chapter.

BOOK CXXIX.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Germany.—Thirteenth Section.—
Kingdom of Illyria described.—Austria and Germany
concluded.*

THE name of Illyria is connected with historical recollections; it was one of the most ancient kingdoms in Europe, but it lost that title when it was conquered by Anicius, a Roman general, about a hundred and sixty-eight years before the vulgar era. It retained however the name of *Illyricum*, and under the reign of Augustus, Liburnia and Dalmatia, the fruits of new conquests were added to it. Pliny informs us that the *Peucetiae* and the *Japides* inhabited the region between Istria and Liburnia; we may add that the *Carni* possessed the country on the south of the Carnian Alps. It is supposed that these people were of Celtic origin. Mentelle affirms that *Carnia*, the present Carniola, derives its name from the word *Karn*, which signifies barley.^b If however the name of the country be derived from a Germanic word, it must be from *Korn*, now that word, as every body knows, signifies wheat, barley and all kinds of grain. Could it be proved that the country

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Ancient
inhabitants.

^a Liber III. cap. XXI.

^b See *Encyclopedia Methodique, Dictionnaire de la geographie ancienne*, by Mentelle.

BOOK CXXIX. owes its name to the abundance of its harvests, it might have been originally called *Kornia*; the conjecture is indeed strengthened by the existence of a Roman medal, struck to commemorate the victories of Scaurus over the Carni; on one side are seen a mercury and a cornucopia filled with ears of corn.

Historical notice.

Illyria was so much enlarged by the addition of different provinces, that at the partition of the Roman empire, between Honorius and Arcadius, it was divided into two parts, of which one belonged to the eastern, and the other to the western empire. * But the name of Illyrium was no longer used after the northern hordes invaded that portion of Europe; it was comparatively of late years that the Austrian chancery restored its name to distinguish part of the ancient *Illyricum* from the Hungarian provinces and those that extend on the south of the Drave. After the peace of Presburg, Napoleon, who compelled Austria to cede Krainburg, Friuli, Istria, Croatia on the south of the Save, a portion of Dalmatia and Tyrol, incorporated them under the name of Illyria with his vast empire. Austria having gained anew her possessions in 1814, united Carniola and Carinthia, the territory of Trieste, a portion of Croatia, Austrian Friuli and Venetian Istria; the kingdom of Illyria was thus restored. It was at the same time divided into two governments, those of Laybach and Trieste.

Boundaries, surface.

It is bounded on the north and the east by the archduchy of Austria, the duchy of Styria and Croatia, on the south by the county of Carlstadt and the Adriatic Gulf, on the west by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom and the county of Tyrol. According to Blumenbach, it is equal in superficial extent to six hundred and eighteen German, or seven thousand four hundred and sixteen English miles.

Soil.

Lofty chains of mountains extend across the country in different directions; the coasts are marshy on the east, in

* Ruffus, Notices de l'Empire.

other places they are low and dry. The peninsula of Istria, bounded on the south by Cape *Promontory* forms the southern portion of the government of Trieste. The vallies in the districts of Villach and Klagenfurth are sufficiently fertile; the soil is covered with calcareous fragments. The lands in the circles of Laybach, Neustadt and Adelsberg, in some places abounding with rocks, in others covered with marshes, sandstone and sand, are sterile and unfruitful. The western portion of the kingdom is bathed by the Adriatic, there, the dry soil which rests on calcareous rocks, and the scarcity of the water, do not appear to be hurtful to the vegetation. It may be remarked that the plants in the southern districts have a great resemblance to those on the shores of the Black Sea.

The branches of two lofty chains extend into Illyria;—the Norican Alps on the north, and the Julian Alps on the south. They are in a great measure, particularly the last, composed of the calcareous rocks which geologists have called secondary, and which, from their tendency to give way, so as to form numerous cavities, might well be termed cavernous. It seems indeed as if all these heights were hollow, at least it cannot be denied that almost as many rivers flow below as above the ground. The stranger who follows their course, observes them entering and returning at different distances from the depths of the earth. Others become wholly dry at certain seasons of the year, and afterwards reappear.

It might be possible to enumerate more than a thousand caverns in the chain that traverses Illyria from north-west to south-east; but none can be compared in point of extent with the one at Adelsberg, which is situated in a small valley at no great distance from that burgh. Some writers consider it equal in length to five miles. It is by no means easy to trace the rapid declivities in the labyrinth, or the narrow and tortuous passages which lead to immense halls. All agree that it surpasses most places of the kind; the soil is encrusted with fossil bones; a torrent rushes through the cavities with a frightful noise, which is

Cavern at
Adelsberg.

BOOK repeated by many echoes; stalactites adorn the halls, and
CXXIX. appear in some places like the ruins of old palaces, in others like magnificent columns.^d

Cave of the The cave of the Magdalene, although not nearly so large
Magdalene. as the last, is fully as deep, and perhaps as remarkable on account of its stalactites. The vault has the appearance of being supported by large cariatides; and their calcareous concretions exhibit the most varied forms. That species of water eft known by the name of *Proteus anguinus* abounds in a small marsh at the extremity of the cave.

Lake of Many lakes, and all of them amply stored with fish, are
Czirknitz. situated in the Illyrian mountains; but the lake of Czirknitz has been more frequently examined by naturalists than any other; in some years, the angler, the field sportsman, the sower and the reaper may there find employment. Calcareous mountains bound it on every side; mount Jovornick commands it on the south, and the Sliviza on the north. It may be about four or five leagues in circumference in dry seasons, and in wet about seven or eight. The waters of eight streams flow into it, and four or five islands rise in the middle of the lake; the village of Vorneck has been built on the largest of these islands.

The lake disappears at irregular periods, and flows through forty clefts or apertures in its channel. The inhabitants then collect the fish that have not been carried away by the water, and shoot the aquatic fowl that seek in vain for their haunts. The husbandman deposits the seed in the fertile ooze, trusting that his labours may be crowned by an abundant harvest; but his labour, his outlay and his hopes are often vain. By the same issues, which served to drain the lake, the waters rise suddenly with a tremendous noise resembling thunder; the fish reappear, the teal and water birds find their wonted asylum, and man complains of his improvidence.

^d See the description of the cavern in a work already cited; the Itinerary of Austria by M. de Jenny. See also the letter of M. Bertrand Geslin to M. Brongniart,—*Annales des Sciences Naturelles*, Tom. VII: page 258.

Different mineral substances are obtained in the kingdom; Carinthia contains not only carbonated iron, lead and zinc mines, which are situated in intermediate lands, but also silver and copper.

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Metals.

The metallic veins in Carniola are not less abundant; but the quicksilver mines in the neighbourhood of Idria are the most valuable. These mines, together with others in Spain and at Deux-Ponts, supply the greater part of Europe. The quicksilver in Carinthia is found in bituminous schistus. The metallic wealth of the country is circulated by the Drave and the Save,—the principal rivers, and by the Lizonzo and the Quieto, which throw themselves into the Adriatic Gulf.

The keen and cold air of the mountains near Villach and Klagenfurt prevents the vine from arriving at maturity; but the climate to the south of these mountains is wholesome and temperate. The stranger begins to feel the heat of the atmosphere, in the districts between Laybach, Neustadt and Adelsberg, and it increases gradually as he advances southwards. The chesnut tree and the vine flourish, the climate is favourable to them, and the only obstacle against which they have to contend, arises from the bad quality of the soil. The fig, the mulberry, and even the olive thrive in the country round Trieste; it is seldom that they are exposed to any danger from frost. The vines are loaded with grapes, but their produce does not keep any length of time; the wines, however, that are produced in the valley of Vinodol, form an exception, they may be exported; they are brisk and sparkling, and for that reason have been called the champagne of the country. The domestic animals are not of a good kind; but the people in the vallies devote themselves principally to the rearing of silk worms.

Although Illyria is not a manufacturing country, the Industry inhabitants are by no means indolent. Industry appears to be most diffused in the neighbourhood of Trieste and Fiume; among the produce of that industry, different works in iron and steel might be mentioned. The people

BOOK near the shores of the sea are occupied in fishing or in
CXXIX. building vessels. The inhabitants of the kingdom find employment in the carrying trade, or in conveying different sorts of merchandise conveyed by the Adriatic Gulf, and destined for Vienna and Hungary.

Population. The vapours that exhale from the shores of the Adriatic are in many places hurtful to the health. Few strong men are seen in these districts; still the insignificance of the population must be attributed, not to the climate or atmosphere, but to other causes; it is certain that the number of inhabitants for every square league does not exceed seven hundred. They consist of Wends, Siavi, Croats, Germans and Italians, who in all make up one million two hundred thousand individuals. The most of them profess the catholic religion; the protestants do not amount to more than eighteen thousand persons. The German is spoken by the nobles in the greater part of the kingdom; but the people in Trieste speak a corrupt Italian idiom, and some Serbes retain their Slavonic dialect.

**Govern-
ment and
revenue.** The freedom of the peasantry is subject to certain restrictions; the kingdom is said to be independent; it must be admitted that the people are nominally represented by the states. But the states are not a legislative assembly, their members have no power to enact laws; they are deputed by the clergy, the nobles and the towns; it is their province to regulate the amount and the distribution of the taxes. It has been calculated that the revenue of the kingdom is equal to six millions of florins.

**Towns and
villages.** The village of Ferlach is situated on the banks of the Drave, it contains three thousand inhabitants, many of whom are employed in a manufactory of arms, which furnishes thirty thousand muskets every year. The small town of Saint Veit serves as a depot for the iron of Carinthia; its market-place is adorned with a fine ancient fountain.

**Capital of
Carinthia.** Klagenfurt, the capital of Carinthia, is regularly built in the form of a rectangle; it stands on a canal which communicates with the lake of Werth. Fountains may

be seen in all the squares and principal streets; the palace of the prince and bishop of Gurk is remarkable for its numerous and valuable collections. The town is peopled by nine thousand five hundred inhabitants; it has its public libraries, seminaries, agricultural and literary societies, hospitals and other charitable institutions. The inhabitants are said to speak the German language more purely and correctly than any others in the kingdom. The ancient town of Villach, and the village of Bleiberg are situated in the vicinity, both are well known; the former on account of its white marble quarries, and the other for lead mines, which are considered the finest in Europe, and which yield annually more than thirty-five thousand hundredweights of pure metal.

Krainburg, a well built town on the Drave, was inhabited by the Slavonians in the eighth century; many antiquaries suppose it to be built on the site of the ancient *Santicum*. Laybach or, according to its Slavonic name, Lublana, stands on both banks of the Laybach; its streets, although well paved, are narrow and irregular. The cathedral is admired for its paintings, and the townhouse for its Gothic architecture. Laybach is the seat of the government, and the council of censors meet in the same place. It is enriched by its carrying trade with Italy, Croatia and Bavaria. Gurkfeld is built on a hill planted with vineyards, and the Save flows at its base; it contains two thousand two hundred inhabitants; the principal buildings are a castle and a church. As several articles of antiquity have been discovered near Gurkfeld, it has been inferred that it was the ancient Novidunum. The fact, however, may be considered doubtful; indeed there is reason to believe that the ancient and celebrated town of Novidunum was situated at no great distance from Raln. Neustadt is frequented in the summer season by the strangers who repair to the warm baths at Toeplitz.

The town of Mœtling rises at the base of the mountains inhabited by the *Huskoken*, these mountains may be about forty miles in length. Many pilgrims visit Mœtling, but

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neither their example nor that of the peasants who repair to it in crowds at certain seasons, have infected the mountaineers ; it must be admitted, however, that the Huskoken are a demi-barbarous tribe, depending chiefly on pillage for a subsistence.

Gottschee. Gottschee, a town of sixteen hundred souls, possesses a large and well built castle. The Gottschers, in the neighbouring country amount in number to forty-four thousand ; they may be distinguished from the other inhabitants by their language and their dress. They weave linen and make different articles of wood, which are exported to Austria and Hungary. The men are always armed with small axes, weapons by which they may be easily known. Idria stands in a deep valley on the Julian Alps ; its Calvary is situated on a lofty hill, its lead mines are very valuable, the passage that leads to them communicates with the centre of the town.

Government of Trieste. The harshness of the German language may be inferred from the names of the places in the government of Laybach, but in Trieste the most of the names are Italian. Görz or Gorizia, the chief town of a circle, contains ten thousand inhabitants. It stands in a fruitful valley on the banks of the Lizonzo ; it has different societies, one of agriculture, another of arts, and a third of commerce. Monte Santo, a small district famous for its wine, is situated in the neighbourhood. A Roman city rose formerly on the banks of the Anfora, it was destroyed by the Huns in the year 452, the small town or rather the burgh of Aquileja now occupies its site. Encompassed by the fens of the Marano, it cannot be enlarged until these pestilential marshes are drained by government.

Trieste. Trieste, the capital of the government, was formerly the greatest port in Austria ; its castle was ruined by the French commandant in 1813, and there remains only a battery for the purpose of saluting the vessels that enter the roads. Trieste is divided into the old and new town, the latter extends to the base of the mountain which commanded the castle. The only public buildings entitled to

notice are the treasury, a model of architecture, and the church of the Jesuits, which is remarkable for its fine front. Trieste is built in the Italian style, the houses are regular and the streets are broad, particularly in the new town and in the suburbs, but in the old town the buildings are more antiquated, the streets are narrow and dirty. It is impossible to walk in them during wet weather without being exposed to torrents which fall from the house-tops. Streams are sometimes transformed into rivers, and if the passengers be in a hurry, the quickest way is to ford or to swim across them. The exterior of the cathedral is only remarkable for the Roman remains with which it was built, and the interior, on account of the monument raised to the memory of the celebrated Winkelmann. Other monuments of a more ancient date may fix the attention; such, for instance, are the triumphal arch erected to Charlemagne, the remains of a Roman amphitheatre, and an ancient Roman aqueduct by which the town is now supplied with water. The harbour of Trieste has lately been improved; ships can now enter it; it enjoys the privileges of free trade, privileges which ensure the prosperity of its commerce. All the German geographers agree that the town contains at least thirty-six thousand inhabitants.*

Capo d'Istria, a maritime town of five thousand four hundred souls, is built on a rock that communicates by a bridge with the continent; it is the metropolis of a diocese. Pirano, which rises like a pyramid at the extremity of a cape, is peopled by six thousand two hundred individuals, most of whom are engaged in fishing or in building vessels, and also in cultivating the vine and olive. The principal church is situated on a height in the centre of the town. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade, particularly in salt obtained from the adjoining marshes. Parenzo, a small town, is remarkable for its cathedral, in which are seen mosaics of the tenth century, and consequently, at

* Thienen makes its population amount to forty thousand five hundred and thirty individuals.

BOOK CXXIX. least eighty years older than those in Saint Mark at Venice.

Rovigno.

Rovigno, a well built town, stands on a headland encompassed with rocks; its Gothic cathedral is its finest edifice. An active trade, its fisheries and coasting vessels serve to enrich its nine thousand six hundred inhabitants.

Pola.

The small town of Pola near the cape called Promontory, exhibits the remains of that flourishing city which Cæsar destroyed on account of its devotion to Pompey. It might have been owing to the beautiful view which it commands, or to the interest which its faithful and attached inhabitants inspired, that Julia, the daughter of Augustus, persuaded her father to rebuild it; at all events, the town obtained the name of *Pietas Julia*. The pestilential air that rises from its marshes, has, without doubt, contributed to its decay; it is only inhabited at present by eight hundred and fifty individuals. The strangers that examine it, may consider it a Roman or a modern town; the streets are covered with grass, the soil in some places with the fragments of ancient buildings. The old castle, which is not yet finished, appears as deserted as the rest of the town. The cathedral is built on the site, and with the remains of a Roman temple. Two other temples, on one of which is inscribed a dedication to Augustus, a large triumphal arch, the *Porta Aurea*, a monument of conjugal affection, an amphitheatre, which, judging from its dimensions, might have contained fifteen thousand spectators, and many other ruins still show how much the town was enlarged and adorned by Augustus.

Austrian empire.—Conclusion.

Having arrived at the southern extremity of Germany, it is necessary to make some observations on the state of that country, and in the first place on the German possessions of the Austrian empire. These possessions, including Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, the archduchy of Austria, Styria, Tyrol and Illyria, form a superficial extent of three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight German, or nearly forty-nine thousand seven hundred

English square miles; they are peopled by ten millions four hundred thousand inhabitants. Thus it appears that in point of surface and population, they make up a little more than the third of the whole empire. But the Germans do not amount to much more than the half of the population, and their number has certainly been overrated by those, who consider it equal to seven millions. It may therefore be easily imagined how much the difference of language, manners and customs tends to weaken their national spirit, and consequently their political force. Considered as a federative state, Austria possesses but few advantages; if the German provinces are attached to their government, an assumption that may be considered doubtful, it is not difficult to observe in Galicia, in Hungary and its dependencies, a sort of indifference; and in the Italian provinces, an avowed aversion to the power that governs them. The Austrian government may be anxious to reconcile discordant opinions, but it is by no means disposed to confound so many different interests by institutions which it considers dangerous, perhaps incompatible with the actual civilization of its subjects. It advances slowly on the beaten path, and accommodates itself to the prejudices of the people. Far from imitating Joseph the Second in his projects of improvement, it is rather the effect of its policy to keep the people ignorant. Having granted certain privileges to the Jesuits, Galicia has been opened to them, they may ere long become as influential throughout the empire as in the time of their splendour.

The house of Austria, rich in its soil, its mines and in the industry of its inhabitants, ruling a population of thirty two millions,^f maintaining an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men, and carrying on a trade producing L.3,500,000, is not so formidable as many are apt to imagine. The revenue amounts to L.16,035,000, and the public debt to more than six times that sum. The navy consists only of seven ships of the line, as many frigates.

^f Alphabetisch-topographisches Postreise-Handbuch, by Thielen, 1827.

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and ten or twelve brigs and sloops. It was determined by the last treaties that the course of the Inn should form a western boundary ; this object of Austrian ambition has at length been attained ; but Austria may wish to be invulnerable on other points besides those towards Bavaria. Although secure from the chances of an attack in that quarter, although now too powerful to fear the crescent that twice threatened to destroy it, a more formidable enemy may advance against it from the north ;—Gallicia has been considered its bulwark, but that country, from its nature and position, could afford but a feeble defence in the event of an invasion. It is unnecessary to extend these general remarks, or to enter into details ; the readers who may be desirous of obtaining further information concerning the resources, and position of the German provinces under the Austrian empire, may be referred to the tables at the end of the chapter.

**Germany
concluded.**

It may be asked what are the conclusions connected with the moral and political state of Germany, to which a stranger is likely to arrive, who traverses it in every direction, and who judges with impartiality. Is that vast federative state united by common interests ? is it powerful from the resources which the different states that compose it, afford to each other ; or is it not a country whose inhabitants are only united by the same language ? The light of knowledge has long been diffused over Germany, have the institutions thus rendered necessary, tended to improve the condition of the people ? Such are the questions which it is proposed to examine.

**Comparison
between its
ancient and
present form
of govern-
ment.**

When more than three hundred states represented at the Germanic diet, acknowledged the supremacy of an elected chief with the title of emperor ; Germany might have been considered a vast country divided into principalities or rather into governments. More detached from the rest of Europe, the Germans in these different governments might be said to form a single nation. But at present while Germany consists of forty-two independent sovereignties, some of which are sufficiently important to depend on their own

resources, the federative bonds have been destroyed by conflicting interests; nothing of former Germany now remains; it differs wholly from what it was during the sixteenth century. At one time the clergy and nobles possessed a decided preponderance and many privileges burdensome to the people. But the reformation first weakened and at last destroyed the temporal power of the clergy. The spirit of liberty has in later times made new conquests, and created new institutions.

No longer compelled to labour gratuitously for the nobles, governed by a comparatively small number of princes, the Germans have undoubtedly gained by the recent changes. The taxes have been distributed with greater impartiality, numerous roads offer more easy means of communication, and additional wealth has been diffused throughout every class of society. Some trifling improvements have even originated amidst the evils of war; if the houses, says a German author, are now numbered in every town, it must be attributed to the necessity of finding quarters for the French soldiers; in the same manner, the custom of lighting the streets was not introduced before the seven years' war.* Other writers have observed that since the residence of the French troops amongst them, the houses are better built and better decorated, the apartments more commodious and the furniture more substantial. If the wars of Napoleon were for a season disastrous to Germany, that celebrated person ought perhaps to be as much respected as he is now execrated by the Germans, for while he oppressed the country with the weight of his power, the continental system tended to expand those germs of industry, of which the people are beginning to reap the blessed fruits.

The Thuringerwald divides Germany into two regions, the northern and the southern. The northern Germans living on bread, potatoes, milk and butter, drinking occasionally beer and spirits, are stronger, more frugal and

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* Deutschland oder Briefe eines in Deutschland reisenden Deutschen.

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more enlightened ; protestantism has made most proselytes amongst them. ; Delicate in their manner of life, accustomed to wine, sometimes addicted to drunkenness, the southern Germans may be more lively, but they are also more superstitious. In northern Germany, numerous habitations, villages adorned with fountains, neat and clean houses, excellent roads lined with fruit trees, and well cultivated fields proclaim the wealth of the inhabitants.

Many castles, the remains of feudal times, begin to appear in the country near the Black Forest. These and the different monuments throughout Germany are kept in good repair, if they fall to ruin, it cannot be imputed to negligence but to time, which is often more ready to destroy than the hand of man to preserve.

State of the
sciences.

A distinguished writer calls Germany *the country of thought*.^h The unnumbered philosophical and metaphysical systems from the time of the profound Leibnitz to the days of the unintelligible Kant, might perhaps entitle it to such a designation. But it has been said correctly that the country abounds with learned men ; they are not as in other states confined to the capital, they may be met with in the smallest towns. As to the physical sciences, they have been cultivated with as much success as in other countries, they are now more encouraged by the different governments than by the government of that nation, which boasts, perhaps not without reason, of having been pre-eminent in Europe, in the career of science. However painful it may be for a Frenchman to humble his national pride before strangers so long his inferiors, it must be admitted that among the advantages of the late peace, are those which have enabled different states in Germany to compete with France in the most attractive and most useful departments of knowledge. It may be sufficient to visit the collections at Munich, Berlin and Frankfort, and to converse with the distinguished men in these towns, to be convinced that the Germans are not surpassed by their

^h L'Allemagne by Madam de Staël.

neighbours. Equal to other nations in different sciences, BOOK CXXIX. in theology, jurisprudence and history, they may be inferior in political knowledge, but the means of acquiring it are rapidly increasing, six hundred journals are now published in the country.

The method of public instruction adopted in the universities is superior to that used in the French colleges. It may be remarked, although the youth are taught to read Greek and Latin in a shorter period than eight years, that there are in no country more celebrated classical scholars and archæologists. Education.

Gymnastics form a part of the education in different states; it has been said that such exercises, besides their advantage in rendering the body flexible and robust, have a salutary influence on the moral character, or that young men fatigued by this healthful labour are more apt to avoid dangers which are too often the consequences of effeminacy and repose. Gymnastics.

As society has few charms in Germany, the enjoyments of reading and study are necessarily better appreciated than in other countries. Music appears to be almost an innate art with the Germans. Students may be seen walking in procession, and singing hymns of praise to the divinity; the peasant during intervals of labour often composes an air on a wretched harpsichord, and the shepherd makes the woods re-echo the harmonious notes of his flute. Literature, Music.

The population of Germany amounts to thirty millions five hundred thousand inhabitants, who are dispersed over a surface of twelve thousand German or more than a hundred and fifty thousand English square miles, so that the average number of individuals for every German square mile is equal to two thousand five hundred and forty-two. Population.

According to statistical accounts, there are sixteen millions of protestants, twenty-five thousand Herrenhuthians, two thousand five hundred Mennonites, fourteen thousand of the eastern church and three hundred thousand Jews.¹ Improvements that may be expected.

¹ Deutschland oder Briefe, &c.

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Improvements that
may be expected.

The revenue exceeds two hundred millions of florins, and the military force three hundred thousand men.

Unprovided with harbours, destitute of canals, particularly in the southern states, the debt must be liquidated, the representative system better understood, a navy created or much increased, inland commerce less shackled by custom-houses, the coinage as well as the system of weights and measures, rendered uniform, lastly, the people must be more united, before it can be flourishing within, and respected without.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF THE

GERMAN PROVINCES UNDER THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

A. KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA,

DIVIDED INTO SIXTEEN CIRCLES.

	Population.	BOOK
1 Rakonitz	160,299	<u>CXXIX.</u>
2 Beraum	163,389	
3 Haurzim	181,631	
4 Bunzlau	375,832	
5 Bidschow	237,738	
6 Kœniggroetz	309,102	
7 Chrudin	285,096	
8 Czaslau	226,590	
9 Tabor	185,979	
10 Butweis	194,502	
11 Prachim	246,140	
12 Klattau	163,138	
13 Pilzen	189,686	
14 Ellbogen	220,103	
15 Saatz	128,655	
16 Leitmeritz	335,112	
Town of Prague	85,710	
Total amount,	3,698,596 ^a	

^a The numbers in the above table are taken from the manual of M. Thielen, published in 1827.

BOOK
CXXIX.*Domestic Animals in 1822.*

Horses	137,000
Oxen	894,400
Sheep	1,091,700
Pigs	223,800
Goats	61,300
Mules	100

Number of Religious Societies in 1825.

Capuchins	1517
Augustines	7
Minorites	304
Dominicans	317
Franciscans	14
Benedictines	3
Norbertines or Premonstrantes	4
Charity-Brothers	3
Knights of the Cross	1
Piarites	14
Urselines	2
Carmelites	1
Sisters of Saint Elizabeth	2
Cisterians, Servites, &c.	4

Places of Education in 1822.

University	1
Lyceums	6
Gymnasias	26
	33
Elementary Catholic Schools	2512
Elementary Protestant Schools	49
Elementary mixed Schools	380
Elementary Jewish Schools	21
Musical conservatory	1
Polytechnic Institute	1
	2963
Number of professors and teachers	6709

DESCRIPTION OF GERMANY.

545

Number of students attending the University . . .	2,055	BOOK
— scholars at the Lyceums . . .	656	CXXIX.
— at the Gymnasias . . .	6,497	
— at the Polytechnic Institute . . .	791	
— at the Musical Conservatory . . .	75	
— at the Elementary Schools . . .	400,889	

410,963

Division of the Land.

Fields	3,828,500	Lochs or acres.
Gardens	86,000	
Vineyards	4,400	
Meadows	799,000	
Pasture lands	610,000	
Forests	2,310,000	
Marshes	132,700	
	7,770,600	

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Tchekes	2,365,000
Germans	1,275,000
Jews	58,000

Population according to the different worships.

Catholics	3,587,000
Calvinists	40,000
Lutherans	13,000
Jews	58,000

B. MORAVIA AND AUSTRIAN SILESIA,

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT CIRCLES.

1 Iglau	170,037
2 Znaym	157,682
3 Brünn	332,541
4 Hradisch	244,791
5 Olmütz	401,043
6 Prerau	249,699
7 Troppau	219,110
8 Teschen	173,810

1,968,713

BOOK
CXXIX.*Domestic Animals.*

Horses	128,000
Oxen	56,500
Cows	301,000
Sheep	403,000

Places of Education in 1822.

Lyceums	1
Philosophical institutions	2
Permanent academy	1
Catholic Gymnasia	12
Lutheran Gymnasium	1
Normal Schools	2
Secondary Schools	20
Elementary Schools	1,627
Public boarding schools for girls	12
Schools of industry	3
Sunday Schools	1,548
	3,229
Number of scholars	153,000

Division of the Land.

Fields	2,200,400	Iochs or acres.
Gardens	58,000	
Vineyards	51,000	
Meadows	325,000	
Pasture lands	429,000	
Forests	1,120,000	
Marshes	41,800	
Waste lands	596,300	
	4,821,500	

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants for the year 1825.

Germans	462,000
Slavonians	1,473,000
Jews	32,000
Ziguennes or Gypsies	1,000

Population according to the different religions.

Catholics	1,860,000
Calvinists	16,000
Lutherans	60,000
Jews	32,000

C. ARCHDUTCHY OF AUSTRIA,

DIVIDED INTO NINE CIRCLES.

Lower Austria.

	Population.
1 { Vienna	241,774
1 { Lower Wiener-Wald	229,797
2 Upper Wiener-Wald	222,352
3 Lower Manhartsberg	262,311
4 Upper Manhartsberg	236,361

Upper Austria.

5 Circle of the Muhl	195,288
6 ——— the Inn	137,489
7 ——— the Hausruck	176,511
8 ——— the Traun	175,982
9 ——— Salzburg	141,105

2,008,970

Domestic Animals.

Horses	100,000
Oxen	120,000
Cows	500,000
Sheep	700,000

Religious Societies.

Convents of men and women	45
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Places of Education.

University	1
Philosophical Institution	1

BOOK	Lyceums	3
CXXIX.	Gymnasias	11
	Academies	7
	Academy of Arts and Trade	2
	Schools of Medicine	2
	— Engineers	1
	— Oriental Languages	1
	Normal Schools	2
	Elementary and higher Schools for Girls	35
	Schools of Industry	50
	Principal German Schools	20
	Protestant Seminary	1
	Public Schools	2000
	Sunday Schools	120
	Village Schools	4500
	Number of Pupils that attend the Schools	150,000

Division of the Soil.

Fields	2,120,000 Iochs or acres.
Gardens	81,000
Vineyards	79,000
Meadows	753,000
Pasture lands	1,064,000
Forests	1,830,000
Waste lands	883,500
	6,810,500

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	2,000,000
Slavonians	6,750
Greeks	350
Armenians	200
Jews	1500

Different Religions.

Catholics	1,975,000
Lutherans	30,600
Calvinists	1,350
Greeks	350
Jews	1,500

D. COUNTY OF TYROL.

BOOK
CXXIX.

DIVIDED INTO SEVEN CIRCLES.

	Population.
1 Lower Inn	88,869
2 Upper Inn	123,722
3 Pusterthal	98,823
4 The Adige or Botzen	104,101
5 Trente	161,528
6 Roveredo	98,156
7 Vorarlberg	86,754
	762,053

Domestic Animals.

Horses	7,600
Mules	1,100
Oxen	44,000
Cows	131,000
Sheep	137,500
Goats	63,000
Pigs	40,400

Religious Societies.

Convents for men and women	22
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Places of Education.

Lyceums	2
Gymnasias	6
Normal Schools	2
Seminaries endowed by Government	15
Elementary Schools	735
Schools for Girls	59

Division of the Land, not including the Circle of Vorarlberg.

Fields	152,000	Jocho or acres.
Vineyards	17,300	
Meadows	392,600	
Forests	1,508,600	
Waste lands	2,906,700	
	4,978,200	

**BOOK
CXXIX.***Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.*

Germans	598,500
Italians	163,429
Jews	80

E. DUTCHY OF STYRIA,**DIVIDED INTO FIVE CIRCLES.**

	Population.
1 Cilly	181,529
2 Marburg	185,766
3 Groetz	306,321
4 Bruck	66,235
5 Iudenburg	89,889
	829,731

Domestic Animals.

Horses	44,700
Oxen	82,400
Cows	206,300
Sheep	126,300

Religious Societies.

Convents	27
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Places of Education.

Lyceum	1
Philosophical School	1
Gymnasia	5
Normal School	1
Principal Schools	7
Houses of Education for Girls	2

Division of the Land.

Fields	610,400 Iochs or. acres
Gardens	9,000
Vineyards	51,800

Meadows	437,000	lochs or acres.	BOOK
Pasture Lands	644,400		CXXIX.
Forests	1,507,200		
Marshes	700		
Waste Lands	552,300		
	3,812,800		

Population according to the Origin of the Inhabitants.

Germans	478,500
Wends	299,400
Hungarians, Italians, French, &c.	51,800

Different Worshipers.

Catholics	826,700
Lutherans	3,000

F. KINGDOM OF ILLYRIA,

DIVIDED INTO TWO GOVERNMENTS AND SEVEN CIRCLES.

Government of Leybach.

	Population.
1 Villach	122,795
2 Klagenfurt	164,547
3 Laybach	157,100
4 Neustadt	183,508
5 Adelsberg	86,436

Government of Trieste.

6 Goertz or Gorizia	162,928
7 Istria	192,564
Territory of Trieste	54,315
	1,124,193

Domestic Animals.

Horses	32,800
Oxen	97,100
Cows	167,300
Sheep	234,900

**BOOK
CXXIX.***Religious Societies.*

Convents	18
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Places of Education.

Lyceums	3
Gymnasias	6
Normal Schools	2
Academies	4
Schools for girls	3

Division of the Land.

Fields	728,200	lochs or acres.
Gardens	24,200	
Vineyards	34,400	
Meadows	561,700	
Pasture lands	856,200	
Forests	1,359,500	
Marshes	48,500	
Waste lands	2,462,900	
	6,075,600	

Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.

Gerimans	220,000
Wends, Slavonians, &c.	850,000
Serbes	1,000
Italians	50,000
Greeks	700
Jews	2,500

Different Religions.

Catholics	1,110,000
Greeks	700
Lutherans	10,800
Calvinists	200
Jews	2,500

Number of Horses, Cattle, &c. for every German square mile in the year 1820.

	Horses.	Oxen.	Cows.	Sheep.
Kingdom of Bohemia	127	253	632	954
Moravia and Austrian Silesia	232	102	347	732
Archduchy of Austria { Upper Austria	128	259	829	568
{ Lower Austria	158	248	547	969
County of Tyrol	14	85	253	266
Dutchy of Styria	112	206	516	316
Kingdom of Illyria	63	187	322	452

Increase of the Population in German Austria.

	In 1820.	In 1822.	Increase.	In 1825.	Increase.
Bohemia	3,379,341	3,539,441	160,100	3,698,596	159,155
Moravia and Silesia	1,860,000	1,910,000	50,000	1,968,713	58,713
Austria	1,897,417	1,956,334	158,917	2,008,970	52,646
Tyrol	737,562	755,401	17,839	762,053	6,652
Styria	777,926	805,847	27,921	829,731	23,884
Illyria ^b		1,089,175		1,124,193	35,018*

Population of German Austria for every German square mile in 1825.

	Inhabitants.
Bohemia	3,885
Moravia and Silesia	4,090
Austria	2,837
Tyrol	1,476
Styria	2,079
Illyria	2,166

Proportion between the numbers of the two Sexes.

	Excess of Women.	Ratio between the Sexes.
1818. Bohemia	233,998	as 1,153 to 1,000
Moravia and Silesia	125,948	as 1,154 to 1,000

^b The number of inhabitants in Illyria amounted in 1820 to 1,141,960 individuals, but as the territory of Carlstadt, and part of Hungary were then included in Illyria, the population of that year has not been mentioned in the table.

* M. Kudler supposes that the population of Bohemia has doubled within the last 230 years, and that of Moravia and Silesia within the last 296 years. According to the same author, the other provinces present as striking variations.

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		Excess of Women.	Ratio between the Sexes.	
1820.	Austria { Upper	40,811	as 1,094	to 1,000
	{ Lower	65,352	as 1,129	to 1,000
	Tyrol	12,833	as 1,039	to 1,000
	Styria	25,788	as 1,068	to 1,000
	Illyria { Laybach	27,081	as 1,088	to 1,000
	{ Trieste	1,600	as 1,006	to 1,000

*Sentences pronounced by the Supreme Criminal Court at Vienna from
1806 to 1809.—German Provinces and Galicia.*

Attempted Crimes.	Sacrilege.	Child Murder.	Exposing of Children.	Duels.	Seductions and Rapes.
751	14	160	274	3	172
	Bigamy.	Defamation.	Conspiracies.		
	78	156	84		

Amount of the Capital Crimes committed in the Austrian Empire.

1823. GERMAN PROVINCES AND GALLACIA.

Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of Power.	Theft and Forgery.	Fire-raising.
22	13	11	15	5

Number of Trials.

	Murders.	Robberies.	Abuse of power.	Forgery and Theft.	Fire-Raising.	Political Insurrections and Revolts.	Mortal Wounds.	Conspiracies.
1824.								
BOHEMIA	54	1108	4	76	4	57	45	0
MORAVIA AND SILESIA	38	482	1	57	6	19	16	0
AUSTRIA	38	1136	3	141	10	13	23	0
STYRIA AND CORINTHIA	34	362	5	42	0	33	8	0
GALLICIA	87	807	12	112	60	139	60	2

*Number of Children who frequent the Schools.**

Lower Austria	.	.	1 out of every 10 in 1811
Upper Austria	.	.	1 out of every 13
Moravia and Silesia	.	.	1 out of every 11
Bohemia	.	.	1 out of every 18 in 1789
Id.	.	.	1 out of every 9 in 1822
Styria and Carinthia	.	.	1 out of every 10

* See the work entitled—The World compared with the British Empire,
by M. Acurian Balbi.

*Number of Journals and Newspapers published in Germany in 1826:*BOOK
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German Austria	35
Prussia	288
Wurtemberg	29
Bavaria	48
Saxony	54
Hanover	19
Great Dutchy of Baden	22
Hesse-d'Armstadt	18
Electoral Hesse	13
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	9
Saxe-Weimar	17
Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	7
Saxe-Meiningen	2
Hamburg	22
Frankfort on the Maine	18
Other Petty States	31
Total	632

BOOK CXXX.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Switzerland.*BOOK
CXXX.

SWITZERLAND is considered in point of romantic and picturesque scenery, the finest country in Europe. To give an account of such a country, to mark the contrasts between verdure and eternal snow, silent forests and roaring cataracts, fruitful vallies and sterile mountains, together with all the varied pictures of gigantic nature, form a task as difficult perhaps for the writer as the painter. Switzerland besides is so well known, it is so often the subject of conversation, that even those who have never seen it, are enabled to judge of it with sufficient accuracy. To describe the most important features of the country, and whatever it contains most worthy of notice, is the object of the present chapter; itineraries are not wanting to guide the travellers who wish to examine it minutely.

Boundaries,
extent, sur-
face.

Switzerland is bounded on the west by France, on the north by the great dutchy of Baden and the kingdom of Wirtemberg, on the east by the Austrian province of Tyrol, and on the south by the Sardinian and the Lombard Venetian states. Its extent from west to east is equal to nearly two hundred English miles, and from north to south to a hundred and fifty. The superficial extent of the country does not exceed twelve thousand English square miles.

Two distinct ranges of mountains traverse Switzerland. The Jura chain stretches from south-west to north-east; the other or the Alpine, which is much more extensive, may be nearly parallel to the former, but numerous and important branches extend from it in every direction. The length of the first may be about two hundred and forty or two hundred and fifty miles, while its breadth varies from thirty-five to forty. Precipitous and abrupt towards the Alps, it becomes gradually lower on the side of France.

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Mountains.

It is principally formed by calcareous rocks of a greyish ash or bluish colour, and in some places mixed with marble.

Rocks that
compose it.

Organic remains are by no means uncommon; such are the bivalvular shells which geologists have termed *gryphites*, the spiral and contorted shells which, from their configuration have been called *ammonites* or horns of Ammon, and those singular conical remains that have received the name of *belemnites* or thunderbolts. The calcareous strata, alternate with layers of fine sand, which reaches in some places to the height of eighteen hundred, or two thousand feet. But they are occasionally separated from each other by beds of pebbles or small angular and rounded stones, that could only have been united in the depths of the ancient ocean, by the calcareous cement that envelops them. The small stones are fragments of the different granite rocks that form the nucleus of these mountains, and the summits of the Alps. The geologist cannot observe without interest, the granite blocks at the height of two thousand feet above the lake of Geneva; they have apparently fallen from the highest summits to the declivities of Jura on the side of Switzerland.

The Alps afford the materials of continual study and reflection to the geologist who examines them. Among the phenomena thus presented to his notice, some have not been sufficiently observed, although all have been often explained by the aid of hypotheses and different theories.

The immense masses that constitute the Alps, exhibit at first sight the appearance of confusion and disorder; they seem the venerable witnesses of the natural convulsions which

BOOK CXXX. took place when the earth assumed the form assigned it by its creator. Inaccessible peaks covered with snow, summits from their perpendicular sides, not unlike gigantic obelisks, rocks almost destroyed by time and ready to fall from old age, are the phenomena which the Alpine chains present. But if the observer who surveys them be familiar with the study of nature, he may see its slow and gradual course marked by the traces of destruction and decay. M. Ebel has shown that the most ancient deposits in these mountains are arranged in strata having a direction from west-south-west to east-north-east.

Granite
rocks.

Granite rocks of a date posterior to the formation of organic beings, make up the chain connected with Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe. Different calcareous ramifications of the same chain extend a long way northwards, and rise to a great height, while the granite rocks on the south become gradually lower until they reach the confines of Italy. Nothing can be more imposing than the appearance of Mount Blanc; it towers high above all the mountains; other summits which encompass and incline towards it, have been compared by a geologist to humble subjects, anxious to contemplate and pay homage to their sovereign. The Cervin appears like a triangular pyramid, and its serpentine summit rises to the clouds. But the circular figures which they assume, may be considered the most remarkable phenomena in the arrangement of these heights. Mount Rose, for example, is formed by an uninterrupted series of gigantic peaks that enclose an immense circle, nearly six thousand yards in diameter. Geologists have looked in vain for ancient volcanoes in the Alpine chains, the ocean only has left traces of its former existence.

Glaciers.

The sun melts superficially the masses of snow that cover the highest regions, and the snow thus melted, is afterwards converted into ice. These plains of ice, or glaciers are often inclined, and always divided by large and deep

fissures, hence their forms are generally very varied and fantastic. According to their greater or less inclination, the glaciers descend a short distance at the approach of spring, their course however is soon interrupted; still the motion acquired, determines the direction of the fissures which are accompanied with loud and tremendous noises, re-echoed from mountain to mountain.

These effects are the causes of others not less remarkable, the violent shock given to the air is communicated to the snow, it too is shaken, some portions are detached, which rolling downwards increase in bulk, and occasionally overwhelm habitations, villages and forests.

M. Ebel concludes from a series of observations, that the ice which descends annually into the ducts of the glaciers, varies from twelve to twenty-four feet; it may be assumed that it amounts to eighteen feet in one year, or to three miles in nine hundred years, and if it be considered that portions of rocks have been gradually dragged by the ice in some glaciers over inclined plains more than twenty, nay than thirty miles in length, some notion may be formed of the immense period necessary for their formation.

These great natural movements have been described by an eye witness,—the clergyman of Grindelwald, who set out with some of his friends to visit the famous glacier in the neighbourhood of that village. “My friends and I had sat down to rest ourselves,” says the clergyman, “when we witnessed that singular phenomenon, the *growth* or *swelling* of the glacier. It was accompanied with a tremendous noise, every object around us seemed to move of its own accord; guns, sticks and game-bags, all were overturned; rocks apparently fixed in the ice were detached and dashed against each other; crevices from ten to twenty feet were opened, others closed as suddenly, and the water contained in them was thrown to a great height. The whole glacier, thus agitated with so much violence, had advanced a few paces, but ere long tranquillity was

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Rivers.

restored, and the usual stillness was only interrupted by the screams of the wild fowl, and the cries of the marmot." ^b

The Rhine which pursues its sinuous course from Saint Gothard to the lake of Constance, the Inn that descends from mount Bernina, the Adda that rises from the base of mount Gallo, and throws itself into the lake of Como, the Tesino which issues from mount Gries, and traverses the lake Maggiore in Italy, the Rhone that is formed by different streams from mounts Grumsel and Furca, and carries its waters to the lake of Geneva, the Adar which flows through the lakes of Brientz and Thun, and forms lofty cataracts before its junction with the Rhine, lastly, the Limmat that descends from the Limmeren-Alp, crosses the lake of Zurich, and unites with the Adar, water the finest and largest vallies in Switzerland.

Lakes.

Besides the different lakes which have been enumerated, two important ones may be added, those of Lugano and Lucerne, and two others less extensive, those of Morat and Bienne. The lake of Neuchatel has already been described in the account of the principality, and the town from which its name has been derived. All these lakes form a superficial extent of fifty-two square leagues, or three hundred and fourteen square miles. The fish that they contain, are pike, trout, salmon, lota and umber, a very delicate fish occasionally exported to Paris, and sometimes sold for so high a price as L.12.

Minerals,
metals, &c.

The mountains in Switzerland abound in useful substances, such as porphyry, marble and alabaster. Iron, lead, zinc, cobalt, bismuth, arsenic and antimony are found in veins and in masses; rock crystals are very common, sulphur is collected in many places, and some rivers, as the Rhine, the Aar, the Adda and the Reuss carry down gold. Strata of lignites or bituminous wood are worked in several vallies, and the inhabitants use it for fuel.

^b The account given by the clergyman of Grindelwald was published by Professor Wiss; it is quoted in the first volume of M. Simmond's travels in Switzerland.

More mineral springs are situated in Switzerland than in other European countries. The acidulated springs of Saint-Maurice in the canton of the Grisons, the baths of Gurnigel in Berne, and others at Baden are well known; but the most frequented of any are those at Pfeffers and Leuk. The sulphuretted hydrogen contained in their waters render them salutary in diseases of the skin. The goitres to which the inhabitants are subject in some cantons, particularly in Berne, Lucerne, Friburg and Valais, may probably be attributed to the carbonate of lime held in solution in different springs.

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Mineral
springs.

M. Ebel and other botanists divide the Alps into seven regions; the lowest, or that of the vine, commences in the vallies on the banks of the rivers or lakes, and terminates at the height of seventeen hundred feet above the level of the sea; the next, or the region of oaks, rises to the height of two thousand eight hundred feet; the beech succeeds it, and flourishes at one thousand two hundred feet above the oak; the firs are seldom found higher than five thousand five hundred feet from the level of the sea; at that height the lower Alpine region commences, the trees give place to fruitful pastures, which rise a thousand feet above them. The higher Alpine region commences at six thousand five hundred, and terminates at eight thousand feet; in places sheltered from the sun, the snow remains throughout the year; the region of glaciers and eternal snow rises above them. The two last regions are not wholly destitute of vegetation, saxifrage, gentians and other hyperborean plants flourish.

Vegetation.

The weasel, the pole-cat, the ferret, the badger and the squirrel are found in Switzerland. Different kinds of game are not uncommon, among others the white hare, the same sort as that in Siberia, the chamois and the marmot, which is considered a great delicacy. The other animals are the hamster, a species of rat prized for its skin, different kinds of martens, the wild boar and the bear; but the last are at present much more rare than formerly; they seem to be almost confined to the mountains of Valais.

Wild ani
mals.

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Combats between the bear and the bull.

The antipathy that subsists between the bear and the bull is not less certain than remarkable. A well informed traveller states that as soon as these animals perceive each other, the bull becomes unmanageable, they fight furiously, and seldom separate before both are exhausted; but what is most strange, they generally meet, as if by appointment, on the same place the next day, and continue the combat until one of them falls.*

Chamois and large eagle of the Alps.

The chamois are also rapidly decreasing; man is not perhaps their greatest foe; they have to escape from the eagle of the Alps. The king of birds discovers the swift quadruped, and forces it by feigned attacks to fly to the highest summits. The timid chamois too often makes for the brink of a precipice, its place of shelter from the hunter. But such a position is most favourable for its adversary, the one attacks, the other is compelled to resist, the eagle strikes it with its wings, and throws it headlong from the precipice into the valley, where it feeds on its carcass.

Crows.

But according to Mr. Coxe, the eagle has to contend against the numerous crows in the Alps. The battles in which they engage, are interesting from the aerial evolutions made on both sides. The crows formed into straight lines, and divided into several battalions, attack the eagle on every side, and are often replaced by troops of reserve; indeed it happens most frequently that the eagle is obliged to seek safety in flight. The Alpine eagle measures sixteen or seventeen feet between the tips of the wings; it carries off sheep, goats and dogs; man never spares it, but it is seldom that it comes within his reach. M. Ebel vouches for the truth of the following anecdote, which evinces certainly no ordinary coolness and address. A young hunter having discovered an eagle's nest, killed the male, and was descending the rocks to destroy the nest, at the moment he was putting his hand into the crevice to take it away, the mother pounced upon him, fixed her talons on his arm, and her beak in his side. The

* Coxe's Travels in Switzerland.

young hunter had presence of mind to stand still, had he moved, he must have fallen to the bottom of a precipice, holding his gun with one hand, and supporting it against the rock, he took his aim, pulled the trigger with his foot, and shot the eagle. M. Ebel adds, that he was forced to remain in bed for six weeks from the wounds he had received.

The Swiss are descended from the ancient Helvetii, and from the people that inhabited their country at a later period. History makes no mention of them, until about a hundred years before the Christian era. Although it may be difficult to trace their origin, it is highly probable that they are sprung from a very ancient branch of the Celtic race. The lofty ridges of the Alps that rose from the depths of the ocean, may also have been inhabited before any other country in Europe. Ancient inhabitants.

An author whose erudition cannot be too highly commended,^d has brought together several important facts to prove that Greek colonists settled in the country long before it was known to the Romans. Five centuries afterwards, when Julius Cæsar undertook the conquest of the Gauls, and defeated the Helvetii then marching to invade Gaul, a register of their army written in Greek characters, was found in the baggage. Allies of the Cimbri and different German nations, they had invaded Marseilles fifty years before that period, and defeated the consul Silanus. Cassius being sent to give them battle, crossed the Alps, but the Helvetii returned home, and destroyed his legions not far from the place where the Rhone throws itself into the lake of Geneva.^e If Divico, their chief, had known how to improve his victory, he might have made himself master of Rome, at all events the Romans were then trembling for their safety, and deploring the defeat of their general. But the Helvetii divided their forces, and Marius conquered them in two battles, first at Aix in Provence, and afterwards on the banks of the Adige in Italy. Greek colonies.

^d Muller's history of Switzerland.

^e Cæsar—Book I.

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by Cæsar.

These victories, however, are insignificant, when compared with the one which Cæsar gained over them. Two hundred and sixty-three thousand Helvetii and a hundred thousand allies from Jura, the lake of Constance, Tyrol and the Grisons, began their march, after having burnt twelve towns and four hundred villages in their own country,—determined never to return home. Men, women, children, chariots and cattle were accompanied by ninety-two thousand combatants, commanded by the same Divico. A hundred thousand Helvetii were all that escaped the arms of the Romans; Cæsar permitted them to rebuild their habitations. The people were included after this defeat among the allies of the republic, but their independence did not continue longer than six years. They were afterwards ranked among the people subject to Rome, and made liable to all the hardships which the Romans imposed on conquered nations.

Foreign in-
vasions.

The first foreign invasions into Switzerland, happened about a hundred years after the Christian era. Not more than two centuries afterwards, the seeds of Christianity were sown in the country; it had been always subject to the emperors, but in the fourth century its masters were changed. A population consisting of Alemanni, Longobardi, Vandali, Burgundiones and other nations that appeared for the first time in history, subdued the greater part of the country. The conquerors mixed with the conquered, and formed a new nation, when Helvetia was again desolated by the hords of Attila. But the Burgundian race continued in the land, they had their kings, and Geneva became the place of their residence. The Helvetians were less oppressed by the barbarians, than they had been by the Romans.

Religion.

The druidical worship of the ancient Helvetii was amalgamated with that of their conquerors. *Hesus* and *Teutates*, *Belenus*, the god of light, *Taranis*, armed with thunder, *Siwa*, the divinity of the Grisons, *Penninus*, the god of the people in Valais, shared the homage of the inhabitants. A few Christians inhabited, however, some

vallies in Jura at the commencement of the third century; four hundred years afterwards some Scottish monks came to preach the gospel to the heathens in Helvetia, and Gall, one of them, acquired so great a reputation for sanctity, that the celebrated abbey of Saint Gall was erected as a tribute to his memory about fifty years after his death. Can the resistance which the Helvetians opposed to new invaders, be attributed to the influence of a religion that then began to enlighten a degraded people?

The Huns invaded Switzerland in the eighth century, ^{Other invasions.} but their army was wholly defeated; two hundred years afterwards, hordes made up of Hungarians, Moors, and Saracens, appeared twice on the Alps; they burned the villages, plundered the country during fifty years, and were at last destroyed by the brave mountaineers. The names of some places, such as *Maur-Mont*, *Mauro-Fonte*, and the *Wall of the Saracens* near Avenche, serve still to attest their residence.^f

Helvetia was under the protection of the German empire; Rodolphus of Habsburg in the height of his power, ^{Under the protection of the empire.} formed the project of uniting the different parts of Switzerland into a single sovereignty. Albert, his son, followed the same policy, but the inhabitants were much oppressed by his officers. Gessler, in particular, rendered their yoke very burdensome, and William Tell, by putting that tyrant to death, paved the way for the deliverance of his countrymen. Three heroes, whose names are revered throughout the republic,—Werner from the canton of Schwitz, Walter Hurst from Uri, and Arnold from Unterwald, resolved in 1308 to take possession of the strong-holds occupied by the Austrian governors. The secret of their conspiracy was so well kept, the measures concerted with such wisdom, and executed with so much courage and intrepidity, that the result was the independence of their country. But the *Waldstetten* or the three well wooded cantons of Schwitz, Unterwald, and Uri,

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which have been already mentioned, formed at that time the whole of free Helvetia. They made up the confederation of Schwitz in 1315, at a later period the other cantons were successively included, and in 1513 Appenzell made up that federative republic, of which the independence was confirmed and secured by the treaty of Westphalia.

In 1798, Switzerland, like many other countries, was obliged to submit to the laws which victorious France dictated, part of its territory was taken away, and the government was changed. Geneva which had been ceded to France, was restored in 1815, and the country was at the same time divided into twenty-two cantons.

Religion.

The ancient gods of Helvetia were not worshipped after the introduction of Christianity, but other beings of the imagination occupied their place. The forests and mountains were peopled with spirits, and it is supposed that the causeway of Peter Pertuis, as well as the natural bridge which rises above it, were constructed by the devil; the bridge may be about thirty or forty feet in breadth, and forms an arch of twenty or twenty-five feet in height at the centre. The reformation of the sixteenth century was not embraced by all the inhabitants. The cantons of Bale, Berne, Vaud, Schaffhausen, Zurich, Geneva, and Neuchatel are separated from Rome. Soleure, Friburg, Lucerne, Zug, Schwartz, Underwald, Uri, Tesino and Valais have continued catholic. The cantons of Argau, Glaris, Thurgau, Saint Gall, Appenzell, and the Grisons are partly peopled by catholics and protestants.

Languages.

Several languages are used in different parts of the country, but the German, more generally than any other; the people in the greater part of Switzerland speak it; it has been called the harshest and most guttural German. The inhabitants of Vaud, Neuchatel, Geneva, and several in Berne, Soleure, Friburg and Valais, speak French; but the lower orders in the same cantons make use of another language, which is divided into several dialects, and apparently formed

by Celtic, Greek and Latin words, it has been considered the most ancient in the country.

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The honesty, simplicity and moral purity of the Swiss, have been greatly overrated. The wealthy who travel through Switzerland, are apt to be misled by the impressions produced by many romantic sites, so different from others in the rest of Europe; it is the only country inhabited by shepherds and husbandmen living under a popular government. The peaceful life of the mountaineers makes the citizen envy their destiny, he believes them happy, being rendered so himself by the new sensations which a variety of objects create; he forms a high idea of their virtue, because removed from the sphere of ambition and intrigue, he supposes them to be without ambition, care, or vice. Thus, the inhabitants of towns are apt to suppose that happiness can only be found in the country; it is however but too well known that examples of virtue and good morals are not always to be met with in villages. In Switzerland, as in every other country, ignorance and poverty are rarely united with moral qualities; in the cantons where education is diffused, where industry and commerce are sources of wealth, the people are contented and happy. Religion exerts a beneficent influence, and the spirit of union and tolerance, which pervades every class of the community, may in part, at least, be attributed to protestantism.

Character
of the Swiss.

If the Swiss have little taste for the charms of society, they are perhaps on that account more susceptible of other enjoyments; domestic happiness, conjugal and parental affections, as well as the other virtues of private life, are more common in Switzerland than in countries where social pleasures are better understood, where the feelings are less concentrated. The men meet, but it is to converse, to smoke and walk about a chamber, where three chairs are sufficient for twelve persons. It is not difficult to discover the character of an individual almost at the first interview, so great is the simplicity of manners, so little effect has been produced by the usages of society. Thus,

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says a Swiss author,* "at the concert or the church, at every place where a number of persons are assembled, but most of all at a play, which being seldom permitted, is on that account more frequented, it is impossible not to observe the prodigious diversity of physiognomies in people of every age, but particularly in the young, the extreme mobility of their features, the ingenuousness and vivacity of their expressions."

Bravery, the love of labour, attachment to their country, respect for ancient customs and institutions, form the principal features in the national character. The mass of the people are more enlightened than in other countries; in some cantons, not only the wealthy but the peasantry cultivate literature and the arts. The human mind, however, is made up of so many contradictions, that in Switzerland, where liberty has been established for several ages, some remains of the worst of governments are suffered to exist; justice is privately administered, and the torture is still in use.

Dress.

Different costumes, of which the origin is very ancient, distinguish the people in most of the cantons; in several, sumptuary laws have been introduced, a wise and salutary measure in a country where independence and liberty are fostered by the absence of luxury. Games of chance are prohibited, but gymnastic exercises are the daily amusements of the young; they engage in the race, in wrestling, in throwing the dart, or in shooting at a target. Although the Swiss are not a poetical people,^b it is certain that of all the arts, music is the one most generally cultivated.

Agriculture.

The different branches of agriculture are well understood in Switzerland, and if it were not for variable seasons, it might be unnecessary to import grain or other articles of primary necessity. The extent and fruitfulness of the pastures are favourable to the propagation of cattle; the oxen are remarkable for their size, and the cows, particularly the short-horned breed in the vallies of Gruyeres,

* Meister's Travels from Zurich to Zurich.

^b Madam de Stael's Germany.

are much prized in different countries. The horses, though neither swift nor well made, are strong and hardy, but as the mule is more sure-footed, it is the most common beast of burden in the mountains.

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The commerce of the different cantons has been much diminished since the last treaties. The prohibitory system introduced by neighbouring states, has necessarily confined the outlets which the Helvetic confederation found formerly for its cattle, leather, cheese, hemp and lint, watches and muslin, but its pharmaceutical plants form still a considerable branch of exportation.

The canton of Schaffhausen, one of the smallest in Switzerland, is situated at the northern extremity of the country. The capital of the same name is the only town of any consequence, and it must be confessed that it contains little or nothing remarkable. The harbour has been frequented since the eighth century, it was called Schiffhausen or a shelter for vessels, from its position above the cataracts of the Rhine. The town possesses an academy, a gymnasium, different schools and a biblical society. The trade, which is considerable, consists in cotton stuffs, silk and leather. The strangers, who repair to the celebrated fall of Laufen, one of the most remarkable in Europe, generally visit Schaffhausen.

Canton of
Schaff-
hausen.

Frauenfeld, the capital of Thurgau, is chiefly made up of three large and fine streets; its trade consists in different sorts of silk. Bischofzell, a small town, is peopled by husbandmen.

Canton of
Thurgau.

Saint-Gall is a place of commerce, its inhabitants are industrious; but the only curiosities which are contained in it, are its manuscripts and the ruins of an ancient abbey. The people in the adjacent territory are poorer than any other in Switzerland, they are degraded by ignorance and its attendant vices.

Canton of
Saint-Gall.

Appenzell, which surrounds the last canton, presents a very different spectacle; the greatest industry prevails through every part of it. The capital or Appenzell may be considered a burgh, Herizau is a place of greater consequence, and possesses a more flourishing trade.

Appenzell.

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Zurich.

Zurich is remarkable for its romantic situation, and for the fine views that extend from its ramparts and public walks. The materials of its commerce are supplied by its cotton, hat and soap manufactories. It was distinguished in the middle ages by the reformer Zuinglius, and since that period, by the illustrious men, who were born in the town. To be convinced of its just claims to celebrity, it is sufficient to mention the names of Gessner, Lavater and Pestalozzi. The library is rich in manuscripts, in medals and collections of natural history. The schools are numerous, the academy is frequented by many strangers, and the scientific society might be creditable to larger and more populous cities. The small town of Winterthur rivals Zurich in the industry of its inhabitants; it has its library, and also a fine collection of medals and engraved stones, found in the village Ober-Winterthur, which stands on the site of the ancient Vitodurum.

Canton of
Argau.

Aarau or Aarau, the capital of Argau, although an old and dirty town, is a place of considerable trade. It possesses several charitable institutions, and schools to which parents are obliged to send their children. A numerous collection of manuscripts relative to the history of Switzerland, forms perhaps the most valuable portion of its library. Aarau is the only town in the confederation where meteorological observations are registered. Bade or Baden is known from the baths which the Romans called *Aquæ Varginæ*. Tacitus informs us that these baths were finely built, and the same writer commends their salubrity. A great many antiquities have been found near the town; among others, a statue of Isis, which was long worshipped under the name of Saint Verena.¹ The small town of Zoffingen is well built, it possesses several fine edifices, a library and a collection of medals. The only fortress and the only arsenal within the limits of the confederation, are situated in Arburg or Aarburg.

Canton of
Bale.

Bale or Basel which Ammianus Marcellinus calls *Basi-*

¹ Ebel's Travels in Switzerland.

lia, was the most important town in Helvetia during the eleventh century ; it was also during a long time the only one in Europe, where the art of printing was carried to a great degree of perfection. Many illustrious men have been born within its walls, among others, the Bernouillis, the Eulers and the celebrated Holbein ; several paintings, by that distinguished artist are carefully preserved in the university. Erasmus died at Bale, and left his valuable library to the same institution ; it possesses besides, a collection of twelve thousand Roman medals, and other antiquities found at Augst, the ancient *Augusta Romanorum* at some distance from the town. The statue of Munatius Plancus, the founder of the colony, may be seen on the tower of the townhouse. The capital, of which the population has decreased since the sixteenth century, is adorned with several fine streets and spacious squares. The hospitals and charitable institutions are richly endowed, and the method of instruction proposed by Pestalozzi, has been adopted with great success in the different schools.

The situation of the town is very romantic. The cathedral stands on a lofty terrace shaded by chesnut trees ; it commands an extensive view of the Rhine, but the river assumes the character of an impetuous torrent, more likely to desolate than to fructify or facilitate communications in the country through which it flows. " I could only perceive," says M. Simond, " a single boat in that part of its course ; * its waters are of a whitish blue colour, not unlike those in the Rhone ; indeed it is easy to discover a sort of resemblance between these two large rivers, which indicates their common origin." Little Bale, on the opposite bank, communicates with the town by a bridge built of stone at the two extremities, and of wood at the centre, on account of the depth and rapidity of the current. The mountains in the Black Forest bound the horizon towards the north-east. Bale has been more than once overturned by earthquakes ; it was desolated by the plague in the

* Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

BOOK sixteenth century, and it has been affirmed that with the
CXXX. exception of one, all the members of its council, fell victims to that disease.

**Canton of
Soleure.**

Soleure is a place of considerable trade; its broad and well paved streets are adorned with fountains, and a number of baths have been built on the Aar. The principal church is considered one of the finest in Switzerland. The late improvements in the system of education have not yet been adopted in the town, although their advantages have been acknowledged in the rural districts. The prisons, workhouses and hospitals in Soleure are much better managed than others in places of greater importance.

**Canton of
Berne.**

Several towns are situated in the canton of Berne; Porrentruy carries on a considerable trade in leather; Burkardorf, or, according to its French name, Berthoud, is well known from the institution founded by Pestalozzi. Many silk worms are reared at Bienne; its celebrated lake is about three miles in length, one in breadth, and nearly two hundred feet in depth. The houses are painted and built in the form of arcades, and the squares are decorated with old fountains, the most of which were erected during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The long hair of the women descends below their petticoats; it is true that the latter hardly reach to their knees.

Berne.

Berne, or the chief town in this wealthy canton, is well built, but the streets are gloomy and deserted. The town is kept clean by the numerous fountains and limpid streams which water it. The magistrates have not sacrificed utility to appearances; hospitals and storehouses in which grain is deposited and used in seasons of scarcity, are the first objects that the stranger remarks on entering Berne. The commerce of the town is not very great, but the inhabitants are comparatively affluent; no mendicants are seen on the streets. The edifices and places worthy of being visited, are the arsenal, the cathedral which was built in the sixteenth century, the church of the Holy Spirit, finished in 1704, the library, different scientific collections and the

monument in the botanical garden, erected to the memory of the great Haller, who was born in the town. The situation of Berne on a height renders it salubrious, and accounts in some measure for frequent instances of longevity. Its name, which is derived from the German word *bær*, (bear) has given rise to different opinions concerning its origin. It has been supposed that Berthold the Fourth, duke of Zeringen, and the founder of the town, called it Boern, from having killed a bear in the vicinity. The figure of the same animal forms the city arms, and it is perhaps for these reasons that several bears are still kept in the entrenchments.

Sursee and Sempach are two small towns in the canton of Lucerne; they are agreeably situated at the two extremities of a lake from which the last town has derived its name. But Lucerne is still more remarkable for its fine lake, part of which lies beyond its territory, and is called the lake of the Four Cantons. The mountains of Rigi and Pilate are reflected from the surface of its waters, and the most romantic views may be seen from the chapel of Maria Zell and other high places in the neighbourhood. The broad and modern streets of Lucerne extend from fortifications that were built in the fourteenth century. Wooden bridges are erected across the Reuss, and the one which unites the two quarters, is upwards of thirteen hundred and eighty feet in length. The townhouse is richly adorned; the armour of duke Leopold, and other trophies gained at the battles of Zempach and Morat are deposited in the arsenal. The former of these engagements was fought in 1386, and the latter in 1476. Different antiquities are preserved in the cathedral; the libraries, which are rich in manuscripts, the celebrated models of Switzerland, constructed in relief by General Pfyffer, the learned societies, the colleges and schools give the town an importance that forms a striking contrast with its insignificant population.

The canton of Zug is smaller than any other in Switzerland, and its capital of the same name, was probably one

Canton
Zug.

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Schwiz.

of the towns which the Helvetii burned, when they made an invasion into Gaul in the time of Julius Cæsar.

Schwitz might be more correctly called a burgh than a town; it is situated at the base of the Mythen mountains; almost all the houses are ill built. The pilgrims of Switzerland, and others from many parts of Germany and France, meet at the village of Einsiedeln in the same canton. The convent of the benedictines is supposed to possess a miraculous image of the Virgin, and a piece of silver impressed with the hand of the Saviour. Those who wish to have their sins forgiven, must put their fingers into the five marks in the silver, and drink out of the fourteen pipes that supply the fountain, because from one of them, at present unknown, Jesus quenched his thirst. Rapperschwyl is an old and almost deserted town; but its sombre aspect harmonizes with the romantic country that surrounds it.

Canton of
Glaris.

No hostile army invaded the canton of Glaris during more than four hundred years; it was at last devastated by the French, the Austrians and Russians. Whatever could serve to nourish or clothe troops, was pillaged in 1798. The inhabitants of this rich canton were reduced to poverty; there was a famine in the valley of Sernft, a short time before the precipitate retreat of Souwaroff and the archduke Constantine. Glaris differs from most other towns, its character is wholly Swiss; the antiquated manners of its inhabitants and their still more ancient habitations render it like a place of the fifteenth century. The date of their construction is marked on almost all the houses; some of them have stood for more than five hundred years; they are painted with various colours, and on many of them historical events are represented. The streets are crooked and narrow, and so much is the town obscured by the lofty mountains on every side, that according to an intelligent traveller, the sun is seldom visible for more than four hours in the day.¹ The inhabitants manufacture cloth, cotton stuffs and muslin.

¹ Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

Altorf, the chief town in the canton of Uri, was rendered illustrious by the liberators of Helvetia. A tower on which the history of William Tell is represented, stands on the spot formerly occupied by the lime tree, where he aimed at the apple on the head of his son. An old house, now nearly in ruins, is visited by strangers, it belonged to Walter Furst, the father-in-law of William Tell, and one of the heroes of the time.

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CXXX.
Canton of
Uri.

The simplicity and hospitality of ancient times are still observable in the canton of Unterwald. It is divided into two small republics; Stanz, the chief town of the one is remarkable for a large church, adorned with marble pillars, and Sarnen, the capital of the other, appears in one of the finest vallies in Switzerland. A large fountain formed from a single block of granite has been erected in the market place. The people in the canton carry on a considerable trade in cheese, which is exported into Italy and different parts of Germany.

Canton of
Unterwald.

Friburg is one of the most important agricultural cantons in Switzerland, it is also highly interesting to the botanist, and its women are distinguished by their beauty and the singularity of their dress. The cheeses of Gruyeres form its principal wealth, and the small town of Morat is celebrated as being the place of the battle in which Charles the Rash was defeated. Friburg or the capital is encompassed with ancient walls, but the cathedral is the only remarkable building; its tower may be about three hundred and ninety feet in height. The people appear to be as favourably disposed to antiquated customs and institutions as they are averse to every sort of intellectual improvement. The Jesuits have been lately recalled, they have acquired their ancient influence, the direction of the schools is at present committed to their care. The trade of the town consists in hats, cotton cloths, porcelain, and earthen ware.

Canton of
Friburg.

The canton of Vaud, one of the largest and most populous in Switzerland, is also the one in which the blessings of knowledge and education are most diffused.

Canton of
Vaud.

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CXXX.

Crimes are of very rare occurrence, not more than seventy or eighty individuals are confined in all the houses of correction, and out of three thousand processes instituted annually, more than two thousand are settled by the intervention of arbiters or justices of peace.^m

Aventicum, the ancient capital of Roman Helvetia, is situated near the lake of Morat; it was formerly more than six miles in circumference. The remains of streets, and edifices may still be observed, notwithstanding the ravages of time, and the depredations of ancient and modern barbarians. Ruins which are supposed to have been once public baths, mosaics, pilastres, and marble columns, the remains of a vast amphitheatre, basso-relievos and inscriptions attest its former splendour. The walls of its ancient port, the iron rings to which boats were attached, are still seen; but it is very remarkable that the lake has now receded from it more than a quarter of a league. Tacitus makes mention of *Aventicum*, Vespasian embellished it, but it is at present an ill peopled burgh, of which the Latin name has been changed into Avenche. The greatest curiosities in the small town of Payerne, are the tomb and the saddle of queen Bertha; an opening appears in the saddle, it was made to hold the distaff of that good queen, who never travelled without it. Yverdun is a place of trade and industry, its inhabitants are distinguished by their urbanity and their taste for the sciences. It was the ancient Ebrodunum, the residence of the commander of the barks, (*prefectus barcariorum*). Orbe, which was also a Roman town, is still commanded by the ancient castle where Bruneau was betrayed and delivered to Clotaire the Second, by whom she was condemned to death. The small town of Nyon that rises above the lake of Geneva, possesses a considerable trade in porcelain. Rolle is famous for its wine, Morges for its spears and cannon, but Vevey is perhaps better known than either, from its romantic situation, and from the rocks of the Meillerie,

^m Simond's Travels in Switzerland,

that rise above the lake. A large fountain adorns the market place which may bear a comparison with any other in Switzerland. The vineyards are productive in the neighbourhood; the husbandmen and vine-dressers join in a festival every four years, it is preceded by a procession, in which the different individuals represent heathen gods and personages in sacred history. Noah and Canaan are seen near Bacchus and Silenus; Noah comes out of his ark, and Silenus is mounted on his ass. The origin of the procession, which was in all probability modified after the establishment of Christianity, is lost in the night of time.^a Lausanne, a place of some celebrity, situated at a short distance from the site of the ancient *Lausonium*, has its learned and scientific societies; Theodore Beza and Conrad Gessner taught in its academy. The buildings worthy of notice are the castle, the cathedral commenced in the year 1000, and consecrated by Gregory the Tenth, on that occasion accompanied by Rodolphus of Habsburg, and lastly the house inhabited by Gibbon the historian.

The scenery round the lake of Geneva is not perhaps so striking as that near other Swiss lakes of a smaller size. Its surface is supposed to be greater than a hundred and fifty-six square miles, but its extent renders it difficult in many places, for the spectator to judge correctly of the distance and height of the summits that encompass it. The mountains seem to be nearer and consequently less elevated than they really are. The higher extremity is without doubt the finest part of the lake; it may there bear a comparison with the most romantic sites in Germany or Switzerland. The surface of its water is about eleven hundred and twenty-six feet above the level of the sea.^c The mean depth has been ascertained to be five hundred and sixty feet, and the temperature is warmer at the surface than at the bottom. The lake is subject to a phenomenon which has not been hitherto satisfactorily explained,

Canton of
Geneva.^a Ebel's Description of Switzerland.^c According to the calculations of Deluc.

BOOK in other words, the water has several times been seen to
CXXX. rise four or five feet above its ordinary level in the space of a few hours. To these tides the inhabitants have given the name of *seiches*. It is highly probable that the lake was larger at a former period than at present, indeed the supposition seems to be confirmed by the fact that alluvial deposits are formed at the entrance of the Rhone, while the same river is limpid and transparent at its efflux. The lake, one of the finest in southern Europe, was well known in ancient times by the name of *Leman*, (*Lacus Lemanus*).

Geneva. Geneva, the capital of a very small Swiss canton, is situated at its western extremity. But although the canton may be insignificant, both in size and population, it is perhaps the most civilized, industrious and wealthy of any in Switzerland. The houses and buildings in Geneva are little worthy of notice, the streets are narrow, and the town is divided into two unequal parts by the rapid waters of the Rhone; but the natural beauties of the vicinity are varied and imposing. The superiority of Geneva over other places in Switzerland is of an intellectual nature; literature and science have been cultivated with no ordinary success since the Reformation. Much has been done for whatever is connected with education or instruction. Sixty thousand volumes and a great many manuscripts are contained in the library. The college founded by Calvin consists of different chairs, such as theology, law, medicine and other branches of literature and science. The observatory is provided with good instruments, and the botanical garden abounds with valuable plants; lastly, several learned and scientific societies diffuse among every rank a taste for useful knowledge; to these causes, and to the influence of a rigid worship, may perhaps be attributed the virtue and morality by which the inhabitants of both sexes are distinguished in Geneva.

**Canton of
Valais.**

The valley of the Rhone, which forms the wealthy canton of Valais, was called in ancient times *Vallis Pennina*, either from the god Penminus, or from the Celtic word *pen*, which signifies a *point* or *sharp summit*, a denomination

strictly applicable to most of the mountains that surround the valley. Saint Maurice, remarkable for its buildings and its fine abbey, is the first burgh that the stranger enters who ascends the Rhone. Between it and Martigny, another burgh, part of which has been called the town, is situated the lofty cataract that ought not certainly to be denominated the *Pisse-Vache*. It falls from a perpendicular height of three hundred feet, not eight hundred, as some authors have stated. At no great distance above it, on the right bank of the Rhone, Sion, the capital of the canton, and the *Ectodurum* of the Romans, exhibits its three castles built one above another. The diocese of Sion is considered the most ancient in Switzerland. The principal buildings are two convents, an hospital, an episcopal palace and ten churches. The village of Albinen is situated near the baths of Leuk, between Sion and Brieg; it is only accessible, says a traveller, by means of eight ladders supported on precipitous rocks and steep declivities. The inhabitants, men, women and children, ascend the ladders day and night, many of them with burdens on their heads, without imagining the road to be worse than any other.* Brieg, one of the finest burghs in Valais, may be distinguished at a distance by its houses covered with micaceous schistus of a brilliant silver colour; its baths were formerly as much frequented as those at Leuk.

The canton of Tesino is the poorest, and the people are the most ignorant of any in Switzerland. The finest silk in the district is obtained at Lugano, a small town situated on the banks of a lake. Several buildings in the burgh of Locarno on the lake Maggiore announce its former prosperity. Bellinzona, an insignificant town, is situated on the banks of the Tesino; the gymnasium is the only institution, from which it might be inferred that Bellinzona was the capital of the canton.

If Berne be excepted, the canton of the Grisons is the most important in Switzerland; it formed part of Rhæ-

BOOK
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Canton of
Tesino.

Canton of
the Gri-
sons.

* Simond's Travels in Switzerland.

BOOK tia in the time of the Romans. Tusiſ situated in the
CXXX. miſt of mountains, on a feeder of the Rhine that deſcends from mount Bernardino, has been ſuppoſed, probably on account of its name, to have been built by the ancient Tuſſi or Tuſcans, who found ſhelter in the country when Belloveſes invaded Italy. Although a very ſmall town, it is better built than any other in the canton. Coire on the Pleſſur, a feeder of the Rhine, is more populous than Tuſiſ ; it is the capital of the Grisons, and the ancient *Curia Rhetorum* ; its cathedral has ſtood during ten centuries, but the episcopal palace is a finer building.

Helvetic
 confederation.

The canton of Neuchatel which has already been deſcribed in the account of Prussia, forms alſo a part of the Helvetic confederation. It is the only canton in which monarchical forms of government are modified by republican inſtitutions. Although the reſt are not all governed in the ſame way, all of them are independent, and united to each other by a conſervative compact. They may be divided into three claſſes ; the firſt or Schaffhauſen, Zurich, Bale, Soleure, Berne, Lucerne and Friburg are ſo many mixed ariſtocratic governments, in other words, ſeveral privileged families among the burgeſſes are called to form part of the ſmall council to which the executive power is committed ; the ſecond, as Thurgau, Argau, Saint-Gall, Vaud, Geneva, Valais and Teſino are repreſentative republics ; the people elect the members of the great council, which deliberates with the executive department or the petty council. Laſtly, the people of Apenzell, Zug, Schwitz, Uri, Glaris, and Unterwald live under a democratic government, ſimilar to thoſe of Greece and Rome ; the citizens form general aſſemblies (*Landsgemeinde*), they nominate their magiſtrates, and deliberate on the intereſts of the republic. The important affairs of the confederation are laid before the diet, which is compoſed of deputies from the twenty-two cantons. The virtue and love of country, ſo characteristic of the Swiss are foſtered and ſtrengthened by their political inſtitutions ; hence the principal literary and patriotic ſocieties aſſemble in the differ-

ent capitals, and bring together the fruits of their labour and research.

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Every artizan in Switzerland, is a soldier at the age of twenty; he must be enrolled in a company, he must arm and clothe himself according to the uniform of his canton. Each canton, in the event of a war, furnishes a contingent, and all their contingents make up an army of thirty-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-eight men. But Switzerland might easily levy double the number of troops. To provide for the maintenance of the army and other expenses, each canton imposes on itself a tax proportionate to its population and resources. But the amount of the contributions varies according to the revisions which are made of them. The debt of the confederation was equal in 1826 to L.125,000, and the revenue to L.500,000.

The allied powers have recognised by the treaty of Paris, the perpetual neutrality of Switzerland. But fully sensible that the weak ought to place little reliance on the promises of the strong; the Swiss have formed the project of raising works of defence at Saint Maurice, and in some defiles in Valais, it is also intended to fortify a central place where troops may be speedily collected in time of danger. The Swiss may find formidable means of resistance in the nature of their territory and in their enthusiasm for liberty; taught by experience, they may avoid the errors which led to the invasion and conquest of their country.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF SWITZERLAND.

Population of the Principal Towns, and Contingents of the Twenty-two Cantons, classed according to the order and the rank they hold in the Confederation.

BOOK CXXX.	Cantons.		Contingent.	Towns and Burghs. Population.	
	1 Zurich	.	3,700 men	{ Zurich	10,400
				{ Winterthur	3,300
	2 Berne	.	5,824	{ Berne	17,600
				{ Thun	3,700
	3 Lucerne	.	1,734	{ Lucerne	6,100
				{ Sursee	3,700
	4 Uri	.	236	Altorf	1,700
	5 Schwitz	.	602	Schwitz	4,900
	6 Unterwald	{ Obwalden 221 } { Nidwalden 161 }	382	{ Einsiedeln	3,200
				{ Sarnen	3,500
				{ Stanz	2,200
	7 Glaris	.	482	Glaris	4,100
	8 Zug	.	250	Zug	2,900
	9 Friburg	.	1,240	Friburg	6,500
	10 Soleure	.	904	Soleure	4,000
	11 Bale	.	918	Bale	16,300
	12 Schaffhausen	.	466	Schaffhausen	7,000
	13 Appenzell	{ Ausser-Rhoden 772 } { Inner-Rhoden 200 }	972	{ Appenzell	3,200
				{ Herisau	7,000
	14 Saint-Gall	.	2,630	Saint-Gall	9,000
	15 Grisons	.	1,600	{ Coire	3,400
				{ Tosis	3,400
				{ Arau	3,500
	16 Argau	.	2,410	{ Baden	1,700
				{ Zofingen	1,700
				{ Arburg	1,100
	17 Thurgau	.	1,520	{ Fraunfeld	1,800
				{ Bishofzell	2,000
	18 Tessino	.	1,804	{ Bellinzone	1,200
				{ Lugano	3,602
				{ Locarno	1,500
	19 Vaud	.	2,984	{ Lausane	10,200
				{ Vevey	3,800
				{ Yverdon	2,500
				{ Nyon	2,100
				{ Morges	2,000
	20 Valais	.	1,280	Sion	2,400
	21 Neuchatel	.	960	Neuchatel	5,000
	22 Geneva	.	880	Geneva	25,000

POPULATION and Surface of Switzerland, Convents, &c.

CANTONS.	POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT SECTS IN 1822.				POPULATION ACCORDING TO THE DIFFERENT LANGUAGES OF THE INHABITANTS.			Total population in 1822. a	Total population in 1822. b	Surface in geographical leagues.	Population for every square league.	Convents.
	Reformists.	Catholics.	Anabaptists.	Jews.	German.	French and Savoyard.	Italian.					
Zurich . . .	191,700	1,350			193,050			193,050	218,000	124	1,772	
Berne . . .	300,500	41,700	900		291,100	52,000		313,100	850,000	476	1,736	10
Lucerne . . .		103,900			103,900			103,900	116,000	100	1,171	3
Uri . . .		12,000			12,000			12,000	13,000	67	196	5
Schwitz . . .		34,900			34,900			34,900	32,000	61	663	5
Unterwald . . .		21,800			21,800			21,800	24,000	33	727	5
Glaris . . .	25,815	3,285			29,100			29,100	28,000	58	482	3
Zug . . .		15,000			15,000			15,000	14,500	15	966	19
Friburg . . .	5,100	67,400			27,310	45,100		72,500	84,060	64	1,333	9
Soleure . . .	4,200	49,200			53,700			53,700	53,000	35	1,514	
Bale . . .	45,900	5,900			51,800			51,800	54,000	34	1,586	
Schaffhausen . . .	26,900	200			27,100			27,100	30,000	22	1,363	
Appenzell . . .	41,200	13,800			55,000			55,000	52,500	19	2,763	14
Saint-Gall . . .	81,829	61,371			143,179			143,179	144,000	111	1,309	6
Grisons . . .	49,000	34,000			83,000			83,500	88,000	386	228	11
Argau . . .	76,500	68,800		1,700	147,000			147,000	150,000	100	1,515	23
Thurgau . . .	63,900	19,000			82,900	41,500		124,400	124,000	46	1,760	7
Tesino . . .		95,000			900			95,800	102,000	148	693	
Vaud . . .	155,000	3,200			5,200	53,000		158,000	170,000	198	862	
Valais . . .		67,400			21,080	41,200	5,120	67,400	70,000	254	276	
Neuchâtel . . .	50,000	2,200			52,200			52,200	51,500	37	1,391	
Geneva . . .	27,080	14,400		270	42,100			42,100	52,500	12	4,375	
Luth. 350												
	1,144,974	737,406	900	1,970	1,346,219	427,190	111,820	1,885,229	1,978,000	2,400		114

* According to the statistical tables of M. Hassel.

b According to documents in possession of M. Adrian Balbi, in December 1826.

SWISS NEWSPAPERS.

The total number of Newspapers published in Switzerland in 1826, amounted to Twenty-Eight. Those that have most Circulation are the following :—

GERMAN NEWSPAPERS.

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1. Swiss Messenger (Schweizer-Bothe) published once a week at Arau.
2. General Correspondent of Switzerland (Allgemein Schweizerisch. Corresp.) published twice a week at Schaffhausen.
3. Friday's Gazette, (Zürcher Freytags Zeitung) at Zurich.
4. New Gazette, (Neue-Zürcher Zeitung) thrice a week at Zurich.
5. The Narrator (Erzoehler), once a week at Saint Gall.
6. The Zug Gazette, (Zuger Zeitung) once a week at Zug.
7. The Friend of the Swiss (Schweizer Freund) once a week at Berne.

FRENCH NEWSPAPERS.

8. Lausane Gazette, twice a week at Lausane.
9. Vaudois Journal, twice a week at Lausane.
10. Journal of Geneva, at Geneva.
11. Bibliotheque Universelle, (a Scientific Journal) once a month at Geneva.

ITALIAN JOURNALS.

12. Swiss Courier, (Couriere Suizzero) twice a week at Lugano.
13. Tesino Gazette (Gazette Ticineze) once a week at Lugano.

Number of Strangers whose Passports have been examined at Geneva from the 1st of January to the 30th of November, 1825.

Germans	1,850
Swiss	3,559
French	3,058
English	1,539
Piemontese and Savoyards	3,094
Italians	553
Americans	88
Danes and Swedes	45
Russians	116
Total	13,902

BOOK CXXXI.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued—Italy—First Section—Physical Geography of Italy.

GERMANY is not without interest, from the great events of which it has been the theatre, from the historical associations connected with it, from the advances which have been made in literature and science, from the genius and character of its inhabitants. It is almost impossible to visit without emotion the picturesque vallies and lofty mountains in Switzerland, the only country in Europe whose inhabitants have preserved the simplicity of patriarchal manners. The azure sky of Italy, its enchanting climate, and matchless pieces of art, render it widely different either from Germany or Switzerland. The stranger hardly arrives at the southern base of the Alps, before he observes new vegetation, new manners and new customs. It seems as if a country favourable to the laurel, the myrtle and the olive, excites man to the love of glory, renders him better adapted for the advantages of civilization. Italy produced the people that conquered the world; the poets and writers who shed a lustre over it, and the arts introduced by the Greeks, rendered it formerly the most civilized country in Europe; and when barbarism extended its iron sceptre over the same quarter of the earth; even during the period of the crusades, knowledge found an asylum

BOOK
CXXXI.

BOOK in Italy, from which it was afterwards diffused over ultra-
CXXXI. montane countries. Although monks, wretchedness and
 superstition have now established their degrading empire,
 Italy is still the fairest portion of Europe.

**Limits of
Italy.**

Considered according to its natural limits, the northern part of Italy comprehends all the country enclosed by the Alps, from the branch called the Cottian to the Julian Alps. But these natural limits have been modified by political boundaries. Thus the northern part of Italy is situated between the gulf of Trieste and the Rhone at its efflux from the lake of Geneva; hence it follows that the Rhone, the Pennine Alps, the extremity of the Adriatic gulf, and the Mediterranean, separate Italy from France, Switzerland and Germany. The Adriatic gulf and the Mediterranean extend along the coasts of Italy to the declivities of the maritime Alps near the frontiers of France. The length of the country from north-east to south-west is about seven hundred and fifty miles, its breadth towards the north about four hundred, in the centre a hundred and twenty-five, in the south a hundred, and at the entrance into Calabria from twenty-five to thirty. The extent of the surface, including Sicily, Sardinia and all the petty islands, has been supposed equal to ninety-seven thousand two hundred English square miles; that of the islands only amounts to sixteen thousand eight hundred.

Mountains. The principal mountains in Italy are the Pennine Alps, or the chain that extends from Mount Rose to Mount Blanc, the Greek Alps between Mount Blanc and Mount Cenis; the Cottian Alps between Mount Cenis and Mount Viso; lastly, the Cottian Alps which extend from Mount Viso to the Col de Tende. These different chains follow an irregular direction from north to south. The long chain of the Apenines stretches from the Tanaro to the extremity of Italy. All these mountains are connected with the same range. The Alps, the Rhœtian and Apenine chains extend from Mount Blanc as from a common mass. The Apenines, which shall be more particularly described, may be equal in length to six hundred and

seventy miles. They are divided into three parts; the northern Apenines extend from the neighbourhood of BOOK
CXXXI. Urbino to the Adriatic Gulf; the central Apenines terminate near the banks of the Sangro; the southern Apenines, situated at an equal distance from the two seas, form two branches near Muro; the least important separates the territory of Barri from that of Otranto; the other composed of lofty mountains, traverses both Calabrias and terminates near Aspromonte.

The chain of the Alps is much more precipitous on the Capes. side of Italy, than towards France, Switzerland and Germany; the Apenines are not so lofty, several branches issue from them, and the most important form capes on the Mediterranean and the Adriatic gulf. Piombino stands on one of these headlands, but the largest is the one that forms the Campanella point at the entrance into the gulf of Naples. The points or extremities of chains are not so numerous on the Adriatic; still the last declivities of a branch extend to the gulf of Tarento, and form cape Leuca. The principal branch which reaches to the southern extremity of the continent, enters the sea and appears again in Sicily. The Apenine chain passes throughout its whole extent nearer the western than the opposite coast of Italy.

The plains in the same country are not less remarkable; Plains. that of Lombardy may be considered the finest and most fruitful in Europe, perhaps in the world. Another plain, situated between the gulf of Naples, Vesuvius and the Apenines, is less extensive but almost as fertile as the last. The plains on the other side of the same chain, although smaller, are equally productive; they extend along the shores of the Adriatic, on the territory of Bari, and near the gulf of Manfredonia.

The rivers that water Italy differ from each other in Rivers. size, according as they descend from the Alps or the Apenines. The Po, the largest of them all, takes its source from Mount Viso. Enlarged by the streams of the Tanaro, the Trebia, the Taro and the Panaro, which unite on

* **BOOK CXXXI.** its right bank, augmented on the left by the Doria, the Orca, the Sezia, the Tesino, the Adda and the Oglio, it throws itself, after a course of a hundred and twenty leagues, into the Adriatic Gulf. The Tagliamento, the Piave, the Brenta and the Adige rise from the Alps and enter the same gulf. Those that rise from the Apenines, and fall into the Mediterranean, are the Arno, which throws itself into the gulf of Genoa, and the Tiber, which enters the sea near Ostia.

Lakes. The largest lakes are situated on the side of the Rhetian Alps; such are the lake Maggiore, and on the east those of Como, Iseo and Garda, the greatest in Italy. When contrasted with these, the lakes of Perugia, Bolzena and Fucino may appear insignificant; they succeed each other in a direction from north-west to south-east on the eastern declivities of the Apenines.

Climate. The fine climate of Italy may have contributed to render its mineral waters as much frequented as those in Germany. The gaseous sources at Saint Julian, the baths of Montecatini, the springs at Saint Cassian, and the celebrated baths at Lucca, bring together many strangers into Tuscany. The gaseous springs in the kingdom of Naples are so numerous, that they appear to be connected with volcanic phenomena, it may be enough to mention those of Santa Lucia, Pisciarelli, Pozzuoli and the four sources at Ischia. The baths of Albano near Padua, others at Rocoaro in the neighbourhood of Vicenza, the thermal springs of Acqui, Vinadio and Oleggio in the kingdom of Sardinia, and lastly the mineral waters near Parma, are all frequented by invalids.

The land from the north to the south of Italy may be divided into four distinct regions and four different zones. The northern, which extends from the Alps to the Apenines, is often exposed to intense cold; Reaumur's thermometer descends sometimes to ten degrees below zero. The olive, the lemon and other fruits of the same sort never flourish. The second reaches to the course of the Sangro; the winters are mild, the olive and the wild orange re-

sist it, but the sweet orange does not succeed in the open air. The Seville orange and the lemon thrive almost without culture in the next region which terminates near the banks of the Crati. Although frosty weather is not unknown, it is of rare occurrence in the low grounds. The last zone is exposed to a burning climate; the aloe, and the Indian fig tree grow on the plains and near the shores of the sea; the highest summits are covered with snow in winter.

Few countries are so fruitful as the first region which Vegetation. occupies all the valley of the Po; it produces a great quantity of rice and different sorts of grain, one of which the Italians use in making their macaroni and other pastry of the same sort. The finest meadows and the fattest cattle in Italy may be seen in the same valley or in others that communicate with it. Cheese forms a considerable branch of exportation, the wines are of a good quality, particularly those in Friuli, Vicentino, Bolognese, and Montferrat.

The second region does not abound in pasturage or corn; the cultivated lands and the meadows are situated on the declivities of the mountains; their verdure is varied by the pale olive and other trees covered with fruit. As part of the third region is unhealthy, it has been termed the country of *malaria*; it is covered in many places with rich pastures and numerous flocks.

The fig-tree, the almond, the cotton plant, the sugarcane and the grape that produces the burning wines of Calabria, are cultivated in the last region, and the vegetation resembles that in the finest countries of Africa. The bombix produces a coarser silk than in other parts of Italy; the cause has been attributed to the nature of its food, the leaves of the black mulberry tree. The luxuriant branches of the vine twine round the lofty poplar, but it has been remarked that the wines obtained from the low vineyards are superior to the wines produced from those of which the elegant wreaths descend from the summits of the highest trees. If the grapes of the two sorts be mingled, the wine becomes acid and disagreeable.

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Italy produces all the fruit trees that flourish in the temperate regions of Europe, and some of its plants thrive only in high temperatures; such are the *diospyrus lotus*, of which the yellow and acid fruits, in size not unlike cherries, are only eaten by children and the poor; the *milia azedarach*, a tree adorned with clusters of pale blue flowers that diffuse a pleasant fragrance, the pomegranate brought from Carthage into Italy by the Romans, the azarola, (*crotægus azarolus*), a sort of medlar tree, producing fruit of a bright red colour, yielding a refreshing juice that the people often drink in southern Italy; the carob tree, (*ceratonia siliqua*), the lentisc pistachio tree, of which the oil is used in cookery and in burning; lastly, the round leaved ash, (*fraxinus rotundifolia*), the precious tree of Calabria, that yields the manna of commerce.

Animals.

Several animals in Italy are common to different parts of southern Europe; others are peculiar to its climate and its mountains, which serve as a retreat for the lynx, the chamois, the wild goat, the ferret, the dormouse, and the lemming, a small Norwegian rat well known on account of its migrations. The porcupine is found in different parts of the Apenines; there are besides many oxen that the inhabitants call buffaloes, which are tamed in the south of Italy. The Neapolitan horses are strong and well made, the ass and the mule are of an excellent kind, and the sheep may be compared to those in Spain. The birds are very numerous,—in the maritime Alps only, three hundred and six different species have been counted.

Some snakes in the south are common to that region with the northern part of Africa, the most noxious are the large asp and the viper.

Fish. ♀

The Mediterranean abounds with fish and molluscæ. The depths of that sea are inhabited by *alepocephalis*, *omatomis* and *lepidoleprés*. In the higher region are found molvi, whittings and castagnolli; at a thousand feet below the surface, the most common fish are rays, *lophides*, *pleuronectes* and others of the same sort. The region of corals and madrepores lies at five hundred feet below the surface,

the animals that frequent them are *balistæ*, *labra* and *trigli*.
 Alga and different sea weeds vegetate at a less depth, and that part of the sea is the region of the *murenæ*, the *stromateus* and *araneus piscis*. The rocks nearer the surface are covered with different sorts of *fucus*, and serve to shelter centrines and all the fish that are taken near the shore. Lastly, in the coasts covered with gravel and with sand, are found the *sparus*, anchovies, *mugils* and different *molluscæ*.^a

The cuttle fish is by no means uncommon in the Mediterranean; when in danger, it discharges a black liquor, which has been called *sepia*, and thus conceals itself from its enemies. Another *mollusca* may be mentioned, which has been described by Aristotle and Pliny, it is known by the name of the *Argonaut* or the *nautilus*. That singular animal, of which the transparent and fragile shell, shaped like a skiff, has been supposed to have given man the notion of the earliest boats, and the earliest lessons in navigation. Endowed with intelligence sufficient for its preservation, a provision indispensable for the mariner, as soon as the tempest begins to agitate the billows, it shuts itself in its shell, and descends to the bottom of the waters. When calm weather returns, it extends its arms out of its light bark, and rises to the surface. It empties or fills its vessel at pleasure with a quantity of water sufficient for ballast; it is impelled by its arms, which act as oars, and if the breeze be not too strong, it raises two of them, extends the membrane that unites them, and uses it as a sail for accelerating its course, while another arm descends behind the shell into the water, and acts as a helm.

The south winds are very disagreeable in the kingdom of Naples and in Sicily, but the south-east or the *sirocco* is the most oppressive of any. When it prevails, the light of day is obscured, the leaves of plants are rolled, as if they had been stung by a destructive insect, and men are exposed to a languor and uneasiness that render them inca-

^a Histoire naturelle des principales productions de l'Europe meridionale, par M. Risso, tom. III.

BOOK pable of exertion. It may be considered fortunate that
CXXXI. the sirocco prevails more in winter than in summer.

Geological Italy affords ample scope for meditation to the geologist.
structure. The Alpine limestone country commences towards the north of Belluno, and these rocks are covered with calcareous oolites in horizontal strata, from which red sandstone rises.^b Springs impregnated with hydrogen issue from the limestone in the valley of Pieva di Cadora. Nineteen mines are situated in the same valley; lead mixed with silver is obtained from the mountain of Jiau, which consists also of calcareous rocks; oxide of iron and sulphuretted lead are found in the mountain of Gregni. The geologist observes in the territory of Vicenza calcareous substances analogous to chalk, higher deposits and ancient volcanic rocks; in the last are contained globules of chalcedony, filled with air and water. The lava alternates in the heights of Monte-Bolca, with schistous limestone abounding in fossil fish. Green sandstone forms the nucleus of all the calcareous heights that extend through Friuli, and of the low hills in Oltre-Piane. The Veronese exhibits the same arrangements, the limestone rocks are filled with organic remains. Hills covered with shells rise to the height of sixteen hundred feet in the duchy of Parma and in Placenza;—they command the course of the Po, their strata are inclined from ten to twenty degrees towards the north.

Diminution The Po, which traverses a great extent of country similar to the neighbourhood of Paris, carries along with it,
of the sea. like every great river, the soil near its banks, and the remains of the mountains that encompass it. The continual action of its water accumulates at its embouchure, deposits which are every day encroaching on the limits of the sea. It may be proved that, since the year 1604, when it was attempted to confine its banks by dikes, the deposits which the river brings down, have been so much heaped in the lower part of its course, that the surface of

^b Memoir of M. Catillo. Giornale di Fisica-Chemica.

its water is now higher than the tops of the houses in Ferrara.^c The sea has receded since the same period, the distance of three leagues. The ancient, Hatria or modern Adria was once a famous port, it gave its name to the Adriatic Gulf, it is now more than eight leagues from the shore. It has been calculated that the annual encroachments made by these deposits amount to four hundred feet;^d that calculation appears to be overrated; but it is certain that the labours of men have greatly contributed to augment the deposits. They may be ascertained with sufficient accuracy; in the twelfth century Adria was about thirty, or according to others, thirty-four thousand feet from the sea; at the end of the sixteenth century, when a new passage was made for the river, the remotest promontories formed by the deposits were sixty-one thousand six hundred and sixty-five feet distant from Adria. These distances are believed to be correct, and it follows that the annual extent of the encroachments was equal, on an average to eighty-four feet. But the successive additions have been much greater since the end of the sixteenth century; if it be recollected that the furthest limits of these alluvial lands are at present 108,334 feet from the meridian of Adria, it might be shown that they are enlarged every year by more than two hundred and thirty-three feet. The Po was formerly subject to inundations, every forty or fifty years; they are now more frequent. The deposits brought down by the Brenta render it not improbable that Venice may share the fate of Adria. The Euganean mountains, a group of volcanic heights, are situated in the vast alluvial plains on the east of the Adige and the town of Este.

Although fossil shells are very common in Lombardy and Piemont, the light lands which cover the marine deposits, abound in many places with the bones of elks, Fossil bones.

^c See the work of M. de Proni., *Système Hydraulique de l'Italie.*

^d Breslak, *Instructions géologiques.*

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mastodontes, elephants, rhinoceros and other large quadrupeds. The bones of cetaceous animals have been found in the hills near Placenza; others, which are now extinct, inhabited the Apenines and the Alps before man established his dominion in these regions.

Apenines.

The chain of the Apenines may be divided into two distinct parts, the one is composed of granite, euphotides and serpentine, which constitute the nucleus of the mountains; the other is formed of what have been termed saccharine calcareous and compact calcareous rocks; above them are silicious strata, and the sandstone known by the name of macigno. The first calcareous rocks are considered primitive; quarries of fine white marble are worked in them, the most valuable are those near Carrara on the western side of the northern Apenines. But, towards the north, ancient calcareous rocks and others of an intermediate epoch, serve as a support for lands of the last formation, in which are found argil mixed with shells, and other deposits containing wood and the fruits of different coniferous trees. The same tertiary lands extend from the base of the central Apenines; they form hills consisting chiefly of marl and calcareous or silicious sand, containing sulphur, mineral pitch and salt. Organic remains are so abundant that a naturalist believes them to be more numerous than all the animals in the Mediterranean.

Granite rocks are more common in the southern Apenines from the mountains of Conegliano to the extremity of Italy, than in the rest of the chain. They are of a yellow colour, of a granulated and imperfectly crystallized texture: they seem to be part of an intermediate formation. Calcareous hills rise in different directions near the shores of the sea. Saline deposits are situated at the base of the Aspromonte in Eastern Calabria, the most extensive are found in the neighbourhood of Lungro.

The existence of a sea now filled with fresh water lakes

• • *Memoire sur les bassins tertiaires de Gènes et de ses environs*, by M. Pareto. *Ann. des sciences nat.* tome i. page 86.

• *Breisak, Institutions géologiques*, tome ii. page 206.

on the western part of the central Apenines, is attested by the nature of the soil; volcanic products have been amassed in the same region at a period anterior to the commencement of history. In one place are macignos, in another travertines, the most modern of the calcareous rocks; their formation has been attributed to mineral springs containing carbonic acid. They were used in building many monuments of ancient Rome, and they are found in extensive strata in the neighbourhood of that town. Other calcareous rocks that are still forming, indicate the course which nature has followed in the most remote periods. The waters that descend from the chain of Mount Velino, hold in suspension carbonate of lime which is deposited in the lake Velino, and also at the falls of Terni and Tivoli. The reader may have some notion of the manner in which the calcareous substances are deposited from the account of an intelligent naturalist. "The celebrated falls of Tivoli are not connected with the steep calcareous rocks of which these hills, (those that command Rome), consist; they are formed by the deposits of streams and rivers, that issue from the vallies, and were in ancient times more surcharged with calcareous sediment than at present. The undulating forms that these deposits assume, forms that are not seen in the plains, are owing to the agitation produced by the waters; their less abundant precipitation may perhaps account for their crystalline texture, different from travertine, and resembling alabaster."

"The same arrangement, attributable to the same causes, may be seen in all its details at the lofty falls of Terni. The traveller observes in the neighbourhood, and in the lower parts of the travertine, fresh water deposits of compact limestone. Near Rieti, at the confluence of the Velino and the Nera, that small river precipitates the same deposits at its cascade, in the same way and on the same sort of soil as at Tivoli."

* De quelques terrains d'eau douce postérieurs au calcaire grossier hors du bassin de Paris, by M. Brongniart, tome ii. seconde partie, pag. 552; des Recherches sur les ossemens fossiles, by M. Cuvier.

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CXXXI.Calcareous
deposits
from the
waters of
San Felippo.

These calcareous substances are in some places of a brownish red colour, fresh water shells have often been found in them, but in other places they are pure white. At no great distance from a hill, evidently of late formation, to the north-west of Radicofani, and near the frontiers of Tuscany, the waters of San Felippo to which invalids resort, deposit a very fine and very white sediment, the minute particles are put into moulds, and by their incrustations bas-reliefs are formed. ♣

Volcanic
phenomena.

The lakes into which the ancient travertine was deposited in the neighbourhood of Rome, have formed the Quirinal, the Aventine, the Mounts Marius and Cælius; but the Janiculum, and the rock of the Vatican attest by their molluscæ the presence of salt water. Other rocks and volcanic products conglomerated by a calcareous cement, form the soil of the ancient city. Some deposits in the vicinity contain bones belonging to terrestrial animals, of which the species are now extinct.

Two distinct tracts of volcanic matter extend from the banks of the Po to the extremity of Italy, the one from the eastern sides of the Apennines to Abruzzo near the banks of the Sangro; the other passes from the opposite side into Sicily. At the two extremities of these volcanic products, are exhibited the phenomena of air volcanoes, in which hydrogen gas is the principal agent. Some of them may be described in the account of Sicily, but the one at Sassuolo, not far from Modena, is visited by all the curious; a piece of wood plunged into that oozy volcano makes the water rise in the form of a jet. Below the sides of the Apennines, that extend towards the Gulf of Naples, craters of different epochs are heaped on the soil now trodden by man, and fields are fertilized by decomposed lava. All the plain of Campania is covered with similar substances, and Naples is built on former currents of lava. According to Spallanzani the lakes of Averno and Agnano might have been ancient craters.

Solfatara.

The Solfatara, the remains of an elliptically formed volcano, no longer emits sulphureous vapours, but the cavernous

soil resounds under the traveller, and the sulphur and alum which are extracted from it seem to form an exhaust-
less source of wealth. BOOK
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The Grotto del Cane has lost much of its celebrity, since several volcanic caverns emitting carbonic acid have been discovered in other countries. Grotto del
Cane.

The lake Lucerno was formerly more extensive, but the eruption in the month of September 1588, raised a small volcano in the midst of it, from which flames issued during seven days, and the lava forms at present a hill,—the Monte Nuovo, four hundred feet in height, and eight thousand in circumference at its base. Lake Lu-
cerno.

Vesuvius rises above all the modern volcanoes in the territory of Naples. As active as it was nearly eighteen hundred years ago, it is considered the only one in Europe, from which different kinds of rock are thrown and not altered. In the last eruption, which happened in 1822, its height was diminished by more than a hundred feet. The most northern point or summit may be about three thousand eight hundred feet in height. The walls of the crater are formed by successive strata of lava, from which the number of eruptions might almost be calculated. Prismatic lava, as regular as the finest basaltic prisms, has several times been seen in the conical cavity. Somma, which was the summit of Vesuvius in the time of Strabo, encompasses part of it at present, and is only separated from it by the volcanic hill of Cantaròni. Near the summit, the lava resounds beneath the feet, and seems about to be swallowed in the gulf it encloses. Hot vapours issue from a great many holes or crevices lined with beautiful efflorescences of sulphur; and if a piece of wood or paper be placed near them, it takes fire in a few seconds. Vesuvius.

Vesuvius stands isolated in the middle of a plain, and as it is formed by matter thrown from the bowels of the earth, its mass gives the exact measure of the cavity from which the different substances are impelled. The land round its base is divided into small but very fruitful farms; the richness of the soil that decomposed lava forms,

BOOK may be inferred from the number of inhabitants in pro-
CXXXI. portion to the surface. Each square league contains five thousand individuals. The stranger may wonder at the security of the population; for apparently men, women and children are threatened with destruction at every instant; but it is well known that every eruption may be predicted by certain signs. The earth is shaken, a hollow noise is heard below it, the wells and springs are dried, and terrified animals wander about the country. Warned of the danger, man has time to escape and to secure whatever is most precious. Clouds of smoke are emitted from the volcano in the intervals between the eruptions.

Minerals. The natural riches of Italy consist rather in mineral than in metallic substances; such are the serpentine on the southern sides of the Alps, the porphyry of the Apennines, the marble of Carrara, the alabaster of Volterra, the marble of Stazzema composed of different coloured fragments, the black marble of Pistoia, the green of Prato, the brocatello of Piombino, the limestone of Florence, on which are represented ruins and beautiful plants formed by molecules of magnesia, the sulphated barites of mount Paderno, which is transformed by calcination into the paste called Bologna phosphorus, the jaspers of Barga, the calcedonies of Tuscany, the lapis lazuli near Sienna, the jargon of Vicentino, the garnet of Piemont, the hyacinthus of Vesuvius and the mines of Sicily and Sardinia.

Islands. Numerous islands form a considerable portion of the Italian territory; the largest are Sicily and Sardinia, we might even add Corsica, for considered physically, it forms a detached portion of the latter. The next in point of extent are Malta, Gozzo and Pentellaria to the south of Sicily; then the islands of Eolus or Lipari between Sicily and the continent; Ischia and Capri at the entrance into the Gulf of Naples; lastly the island of Elba between Tuscany and Corsica.

Sicily. Sicily, situated between Europe and Africa, is the largest island in the Mediterranean. Its length from south-east to north-west may be about a hundred and fifty-five miles, its mean breadth nearly sixty two, and its surface

nine thousand six hundred and eighty-three square miles. BOOK
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A mountainous chain, the continuation of the Apenines, is divided into three branches, and their three extremities terminate in as many capes, namely, Rasocolmo on the north-east, San Vito on the north west, and cape Palo on the south-east. Three great declivities are thus formed in the triangular mass of the island; many streams and rivers descend from them; the largest are the Belici, the Platani and Salso on the south, and the Giaretta on the east; the side on the north is narrow and rapid; no rivers rise from it.

The rocks that form the nucleus of the Sicilian mountains, according to Spallanzani,^b are a sort of granite that decomposes readily, but from the characters he assigns to it, one might suppose it of a later formation than that of organized beings, and that it was included in the list of syenites, diorites and protogynes.ⁱ It serves as a support for calcareous rocks abounding with madrepores and marine molluscæ. Argillaceous schistus and fossil fish have been seen in different parts of the island. The Italian naturalist observed on the sea shore, pudding stones and sandstone in which the pebbles and the grains of sand were united by a calcareous cement, still forming under the water; they are most abundant in the neighbourhood of Messina. Witnesses assured M. Spallanzani that they had found in the sand where the cement is produced, the heads of arrows, medals and human bones; thus the process of nature may still be discerned in the formation of certain rocks.

Mount Gibello or Ætna, a volcano so immense, that Vesuvius in comparison seems merely a hill, rises on the eastern side of Sicily. Mount
Ætna. It is divided into three vegetable zones, that of the sugar cane, secondly the vine and olive, lastly, boreal plants. The greatest eruption of late years took place in 1812; it lasted six months; another that happen-

^b Travels in the two Sicilies.

ⁱ See the article Roches in the Dictionnaire de Geographie physique de l'Encyclopédie méthodique, by M. Huet.

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ed in 1819, has been described by a traveller who witnessed it, and observed the lava flowing below him ; it formed a current of sixty feet in breadth on the mountain, and twelve hundred at its base. It desolated the country to the distance of two leagues, and set fire to the trees which it touched. The stones discharged from another crater above the one by which the lava issued, rose apparently to the height of a thousand feet.*

**Air vol-
canoes.**

Several volcanoes similar to those near Modena, that emit clouds of air and dust, are situated in the island ; among others, the one of Valanghe della Lalomba, another at Terra Pilata, and a third at Maculaba. The first is the least important, its movements are wholly checked during very hot weather. The second, observed some years ago for the first time by Father La Via, consists of an eminence in which there are several clefts ; from a great many small cones, gas and ooze rise to the height of six or seven feet ; other cones about five feet in depth emit streams of hydrogen. The volcano at Macaluba is somewhat different ; its small craters discharge bubbles of gas, which breaking the clay that covers them, produce a noise like that occasioned by a cork bursting from a bottle. A salt spring issues from the little hill, and in the calcareous soil in the neighbourhood are other hillocks of greyish argil, which contain gypsum. Terra Pilata has been so called from its sterility,—no vegetable grows on it.

Vegetation.

The lands in Sicily are very fruitful, the olive is stronger, and grows to a greater size than in the rest of Italy ; the pistachio tree abounds, and the cotton plant is cultivated with much care ; but it is long since the forests have been exhausted, indeed all kinds of timber are at present very rare. Beans are now cultivated as a substitute for fallow. The Sicilian honey is of an excellent quality, and the bee is perhaps the most valuable animal in the country. The other animals do not differ from those of Calabria ; among the

* Lettres de M. Al. de Schenberg à M. le docteur Schow. Journal Encyclopedique de Naples, No. 8.

birds, the solitary thrush is the one most attached to the soil, and the most admired for its harmonious notes.¹

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It may be worth while to examine a question, concerning which distinguished men have entertained different opinions,—was Sicily ever a part of the continent? Those who deny the possibility of such a separation have perhaps paid too little attention to the traditions of the ancients. Pliny^m and Pomponius Melaⁿ considered it a fact that could not be doubted, and the poets have described the catastrophe. Virgil^o and Silius Italicus^p mention the proofs of it. The geologist does not attach any weight to a popular tradition, if it be at variance with the principles and truths that form the basis of his science; but if it can be easily reconciled with these principles and truths, it may be considered an additional argument of some importance. It is true that the authority of history is entitled to more credit than a mere tradition, lost in the night of time; but it does not require much reflection to be convinced that at no very remote period history is confounded with fable. The imagination may easily transport itself to the age when men did not possess the art of communicating their ideas by writing, or when history rested on tradition.

Separation
of Sicily
from the
Continent.

Cluver^q argues against the possibility of such a separation because the course of the rivers along the last declivities in Italy, on the side of Messina, indicate a general inclination of the land towards the sea. But if it be assumed that the Apenine chain, undermined by subterranean fires, was broken at the place where two heights were separated by a valley, and if, at the time of such a rupture, the waters of the sea rushed violently into the strait of Messina, they must have had some effect in rendering less precipitous, the Italian frontiers on one side, and the capes of Messina and Rasocolmo on the other. This much may be urged in answer to the objections de-

¹ *Turdus syaneus*.

^m Book ii. chap. 7.

^p Book xiv. verse 10, &c.

ⁿ Book iii. chap. 8.

^o *Æneid*, Book iii. verse 414.

^q *Sicil. Antiq.* lib. i.

BOOK deduced from the actual configuration of the country. But
CXXXI. those who maintain the opposite opinion, seem to have overlooked what has been ascertained by geological observations, or that the mountains in Sicily, and the Apenines are formed by the same rocks. If it appears a chimerical notion that part of the chain, at least about a league in breadth, has been broken by a violent earthquake, because there is no reason to suppose that the southern Apenines were ever undermined, or, if it may be so said, ever placed above immense cavities; then what has taken place in Calabria ought to be recollected,—a mountain as great as *Ætna* was formed by subterranean fires, when the volcanic heights, now called the Lipari islands, were raised from the depths of the waters.

**Scylla and
Charybdis.**

At a league and a half from the Pharus, situated near cape Rasocolmo, stands a rock famous in antiquity, as being most dangerous to ships. Rising like a peak, the base of Scylla is pierced by many caverns; the billows enter them, mingle with each other, and make in breaking a tremendous noise, which explains why Homer and Virgil have painted Scylla roaring in her cave, and guarded by wolves and fierce dogs.

Charybdis.

Charybdis, now Calpafaro, may be about seven hundred and fifty feet distant from the coast of Messina. It no longer resembles the description given of it by Homer; it is not a whirlpool, but a small space hardly a hundred feet in circumference, subject to that sort of motion which is remarked at sea in all narrow passages.

Malta.

Malta, Gozzo and Comino are situated between Sicily and Africa, they form a superficies of twenty-two square leagues. The first, or Malta, is a calcareous rock about five leagues in length and three in breadth, covered with a light layer of vegetable mould, which is rendered fruitful by the heat of the climate. More than eighty springs water Malta; but if a proprietor wishes to make a new garden, the soil must be transported from Sicily, a fact that could hardly be inferred from the number and excel-

lent flavour of the Maltese oranges, from its beautiful roses and the exhalations of a thousand flowers. BOOK
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The small island of Comino, a rock about five hundred paces in circumference, has been so called from the great quantity of cumin which the inhabitants cultivate. Comino.

Gozzo, an island on which different heights are situated, may be about four leagues in length and two in breadth ; it is fruitful in cotton, grain and vegetables. Gozzo.

Nearer Africa than Sicily, the volcanic island of Pentellaria presents on every side steep declivities and caverns. A lake near the centre, about eight hundred paces in circumference, and of an immense depth, fills the cavity of an ancient crater ; its waters are tepid, no fish are contained in them. Boiling springs issue from the base of the arid and burnt heights. The part of the island best adapted for cultivation produces raisins, figs and olives. Lampedusa, nearer Africa than Malta, is little more than two square leagues in extent. Pentellaria.

The Egades or three islands, Favignana, Maretimo and Levanzo, near the western coast of Sicily, are little worthy of notice. All the islands on the north are ancient craters. Ustica, at eleven leagues from cape Gallo, is commanded by three small volcanic summits, which had been extinguished long before the Phœnician conquest. The soil is a dark loam, it yields rich harvests, the inhabitants cultivate cotton, olives and grapes. Egades.

The Lipari or islands of Eolus are situated to the east of Ustica ; they are sixteen in number. Basilluzzo and the three Pinarelli may be considered submarine rocks composed of granite and porous lava covered with sulphate of alumen ;^r yet three inhabited houses are situated in Basilluzzo. It has been affirmed that hydrogen gas rises round these islands above the surface of the water. The soil of Alicudi or Alicuda is covered with globular lava ; but Spallanzani describes a mass of porphyry that did not appear to have been in any way modified by the action of. Lipari
islands.

^r Spallanzani's Travels in Sicily, vol. ii.

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fire.^s Felicuri or Felicudi may be remarked on account of its alternate layers of lava and tufa; in the same island is situated a large cavity, called the Grotto of the Sea Cow, not less than two hundred feet in length, two hundred in breadth, and sixty-five in height. Spallanzani observed there a mass of granite, similar to the rocks near Melazzo in Sicily. The block which seems to have been transported by the waters, might tend to strengthen the opinion that a marine eruption has contributed with the action of subterranean fire to separate Sicily from Italy. Salina, which Spallanzani considered the ancient Didyma, is more probably the island of Thermisia. It may be about four leagues in circumference; a crater is situated near the centre, and the soil is fruitful in grapes that yield an excellent wine. It has been called Salina from the abundance of salt contained in a small lake, separated from the sea by a lava dike that the waves have formed. The waters of the lake are diverted into ditches made for the purpose; the heat of the sun dries them by evaporation, and leaves behind thick layers of salt.

Lipari.

Lipari, the largest of these islands, is nearly six leagues in circumference; it is covered with feldspathic land, volcanic glass or obsidian, and pumice stone, with which the inhabitants supply the whole of Europe. The mountain of Campo-Bianco consists of conglomerates containing plants, and forming strata that alternate with pumice

Vulcano.

stone.^t Two craters are situated in Vulcano, an island less than six leagues in extent, the one appears to be exhausted, the other, which is of very large dimensions, emits clouds of smoke. It is supposed to be four thousand six hundred and sixty feet in depth, and two thousand five hundred and sixty-six in diameter. The last eruption took place in the year 1775. The extinguished crater is not inaccessible, the stranger may descend to a grotto adorned with stalactites of sulphur. The walls

^s Voyage en Sicile. Tome Troisieme.

^t Dolomieu, Voyage aux Iles Lipari.

of another grotto are covered with sulphur, sulphate of alumen and muriate of ammonia. Carbonic acid is disengaged from the hot waters of a small lake in the same island.

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The volcanic products of Panaria are nowise remarkable; like Lipari, it produces corn, olives, figs and excellent grapes.

Stromboli, the most northern of these islands, is a steep volcano, in which a crater open on one side, is always burning. Two eruptions take place in calm weather, every quarter of an hour.

The entrance into the Gulf of Naples is defended by three islands, Capri or Caprea on the right, Ischia and Procida on the left. No traces of volcanoes are to be found on the first, which is about a league broad, and a league and a half long. A calcareous peak divides it into two parts, and the inhabitants that go from the one to the other must ascend a stair of five hundred steps. It has been inferred from observations made in different parts of the earth, that the waters of the sea are lower than in past ages; Capri, however, offers a proof to the contrary. The floors of the palace built by Tiberius are at present covered with the waves. It is said that in certain seasons of the year, quails flock in such numbers to the most fruitful parts of the island, that the quantity killed in a day has been sold for more than a hundred ducats. The tithe that the bishop receives in quails, constitutes his principal revenue.

Islands on
the Gulf of
Naples.
Capri.

Ischia is eight leagues in circumference, its soil is wholly volcanic, the last marine deposits are at present covered with lava. Strabo informs us, that its fruitful harvests and gold mines were the sources of much wealth to the inhabitants; but it is not improbable that the Greek geographer has been mistaken, for no traces of gold can now be found in its lava; its ancient volcanoes, Monte di Vico and Epopeo are not much lower than Vesuvius. The eruption which happened in 1302, lasted two months, and compelled the inhabitants to abandon the island; at present, however, it is very populous. It produces good

Ischia.

BOOK wines, and many strangers repair to it on account of its
CXXXI. mineral water.

Procida. Procida, placed between the continent and the last island, is not more than three leagues in circumference, but it contains a great many inhabitants, more perhaps than any other place of the same size; their number exceeds fourteen thousand. Its volcanic soil, formed by successive deposits of lava, yields plenty of oranges, figs, and grapes.

Pontian islands.

The Pontian islands, San Stefano, Vandotena, Zannone, Ponza and Palmarola extend to the west of Ischia; several others of a smaller size, rise between them. Ponza or the largest may be about six or seven miles long, and three or three and a half broad. Like those that surround it, it is formed by brachytic rocks, the remains of burning streams that flowed in the midst of volcanic deposits. The base of La Guardia, or the highest point in the island, consists of semi-vitreous brachytes, while strata of common brachytes, about three feet thick, rise above it. The rocks in the island of Zannone rest on limestone belonging to the intermediate formation. Several other islands are situated towards the north, between Corsica and Tuscany; of these the most southern are Gianuti, formerly Artemisia, Monte Cristo, the ancient Oglosa, inhabited by fishermen, and Giglio which the Romans called *Ægilium*. In the last are worked granite and valuable marble quarries; its hills are covered with trees, and the land is fruitful in wine. Pianosa, the ancient Planasia, a well wooded but thinly peopled island, lies at no great distance from Elba. Capria, a small calcareous island to the north of it contains a greater population. Gorgona, opposite to Leghorn, a still smaller island, is covered with wood, and serves as a station for the sardel fishermen.

Island of Elba.

The island of Elba, so famous for its iron mines, which were worked at a very remote period, was called *Æthalia* by the Greeks, and *Ilva* by the Romans. It may be from twenty-five to thirty leagues in circumference, and about nineteen in superficies. Granite, micaceous schistus, and

calcareous marble, are the principal rocks in its mountains, which extend from east to west. The Capanna is the highest summit in the island. Although some unwholesome marshes might be mentioned, the climate may be said to be salubrious. No river waters the island, Rio is its only stream, but it possesses abundant and never failing springs. Several mineral sources are situated in Elba; the inhabitants make excellent wine; the pastures, although of small extent, are very fruitful.

The island of Sardinia, about sixty-one leagues in Sardinia. length from north to south, and about thirty-three at its greatest breadth, forms a superficies of eleven hundred and ninety-four square leagues. A mountainous chain crosses the island from south to north; two branches extend from its western side, the one towards the north-east and the other towards the south-west. The island formed principally of granite, in which are contained strata and veins of quartz, syenite and grunstein or diorites, is covered in many places, particularly at the two extremities, with micaceous schistus. Mount Genargentu, one of the loftiest in Sardinia, consists chiefly of these substances, it is not less than six thousand and eighty-six feet in height. The same rocks appear at the north-eastern extremity, in the mountains Della Nurra. The southern and northern branches composed of intermediate lands and calcareous rocks, are generally covered with trachytes that support tertiary lands from which basalts rise; the same substances may be remarked in the mountains Del Marghine near the centre of the island. These volcanic masses seem to have been partly overturned and destroyed by aqueous currents flowing in the direction of north to south. Fresh water must have had some share in effecting these catastrophes; for in the country near Cagliari, the remains of carnivorous and ruminating animals, as well as fresh water shells, are found in great numbers. No traces are left of the craters from which the igneous products were discharged. A small modern volcano near Giave, is characterized by pozzolana and scorice. The existence of gold in the Sardinian moun-

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tains may be considered very uncertain ; there are several iron and lead mines. Silver, copper and mercury are found only in small quantities.^u

Rivers.

The principal rivers flow from the western side of the great chain ; the Ozieri on the north, the Oristano in the centre, and the Mannu on the south. The Flumendoza rises from the opposite side of the mountains.^x The Oristano, or the largest, may be about twenty-two leagues in length, none of the others are more than fifteen. All the numerous marshes in Sardinia are more or less brackish, a quality derived from the neighbourhood of the sea, or the nature of the soil that they water.

Climate.

The climate is temperate but often exposed to the fatal effects of the south-east wind, the Levanto or the Neapolitan sirocco. Strabo,^x Tacitus,^y Cicero,^z and Cornelius Nepos^a mention the insalubrity of Sardinia. The same effects are still produced by the same causes ; the miasms that rise from the marshes, particularly after rainy weather, occasion dangerous intermittent fevers.

Vegetation.

A fifth part of the soil is covered with forests of oak ; the most common species are the ordinary oak, (*quercus robur*) the holm, (*quercus ilex*) and the cork (*quercus suber*). The island has been divided into three vegetable zones ; that of the mountains may be compared with Corsica ; the plains and northern coasts resemble those in Provence ; lastly, the plains and coasts in the south are arid and unfruitful. The low state of agriculture may be attributed rather to the character of the inhabitants than to the nature of the soil.

Wild animals.

The largest of the wild animals are the stag, the fallow deer, the goat and the wild boar ; but they are all smaller than others of the same sort in the continent. The musimon differs from the same animal in Corsica, both in size

^u Description de l'île de Sandaigne, by M. de la Marmora, Memoires du Museum d'histoire naturelles.

^x Book Fifth.

^y Annals, Book Seventh.

^z Book Second. Letter Third of Fabius Gallus to Quintus.

^a De Viris Illustr.

and in the form of the horns, which resemble those of the ram. The other quadrupeds are the fox, the rabbit, the hare and the weazel. The domestic animals may be distinguished by particular characters; the horses are small but strong, they are useful for twenty or thirty years; the ass is small and covered with long hair; the oxen, like those in Hungary have very long horns, they are light, nimble and impetuous. The Sardinian goats are not inferior in size to those in Italy, all the other animals are diminutive and degenerate.

The eagle soars above the mountains; the vulture devours the putrid carcasses on the plains, and the linnet, the blackbird and the thrush enliven the fields. The flamingo arrives from Africa about the middle of August; two months later, it is joined by flocks of swans, geese and wild ducks that migrate from northern regions, and are followed by herons, teal and cormorants.

The slow growth of vegetation, and the sudden arefaction of most of the plants render insects less abundant in Sardinia than in other southern countries. The tarantula is not unknown, grasshoppers are more common, and the fleas are very troublesome. The bees yield excellent honey; it has a bitter taste which is not disagreeable, the inhabitants attribute it to the flowers of the arbute tree.

The only reptiles found in the island are a small snake and different species of lizards. Many fish are taken in the rivers and the sea. The most remarkable amphibious animals are two species of phoci.

Sardinia is surrounded by several small islands. The largest are San Antioco and San Pietro on the south-west, Asinara on the north-west; Madalena, Caprara and Tavolara on the north. San Antioco, the Enosis of the Romans, is about nine leagues in circumference. It yields rich harvests, and its inhabitants export a great quantity of salt. San Pietro, divided into two parts by a hill, is the ancient Hieracum; it may be about eight or nine leagues in circumference. The inhabitants fish for coral, work

BOOK their salt mines, and cultivate a fruitful soil. Asinara, the
CXXXI. ancient *Insula Herculis*, about four leagues and a half in length and two in breadth, is mountainous and covered with pastures; a few fishermen and shepherds inhabit it.

Tavolara, a calcareous rock, now the haunt of wild goats, was inhabited by the ancients, who fished on the coasts for the mollusca that yields the purple dye;

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EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Second Section.—Lombard-Venetian kingdom.

THE most ancient people that inhabited the country from the sides of the Alps to the banks of the Po, from the course of the Tessino to the Lizonzo, were the *Orobii* on the north, the *Insubres* and the *Cenomani* above the lakes of Como and Iseo; the *Loevi* on the west, near the confluence of the Tessino and the Po, and the *Euganei* on the east. The *Orobii* were probably aborigines of the Alps; their name signifies literally those that live on mountains; but Pliny,^a after Cornelius Alexander, makes them migrate from Greece, yet Bergomum, the name of their chief, indicates a Germanic or rather *Celto-Germanic* origin. The *Insubres* appear to have migrated from the north, they were a branch of the *Ombri*, whose name in their language signifies *Valiant*. Their capital or the ancient *Mediolanum* forms the present Milan. The *Cenomani* were a colony of Celtic people that inhabited the territory of Mans; they settled on the southern sides of the Alps, six centuries before the vulgar era. The *Loevi* were also considered Gauls, and the *Euganei* possessed for a long time the territory that forms the government of Venice, but they were at last invaded by the *Veneti*, who are supposed to have been a colony of the *Veneti* in the country round Vannes in *Armoricum*, a seafaring and commercial people.

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Ancient inhabitants.

^a Plinius, Liber III. cap. 7.

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The descendants of these different nations possessed that part of Italy until the fall of the Roman empire in the west, about the end of the fifth century, when the Heruli under the conduct of Odoacer, quitted the banks of the Danube, settled on the banks of the Po, and made Ravenna the capital of their country. Six years after their conquest, they were subdued by the Ostrogoths, whose power was shaken by the glorious efforts of Belisarius, and overthrown by the eunuch Narses in the year 553.

Longobardi. Italy restored to the emperors of the East, was not long secure against foreign invasions. The Longobardi quitted the forests of Germany, and founded in 567, a powerful kingdom in the great valley of the Po, which in time was styled Lombardy.^b But the bishops of Rome, anticipating their power, observed, not without fear and jealousy, the aggrandisement of barbarians that threatened to destroy or possess the ancient capital of the world.

**Fall of
their king-
dom.**

Stephen the Second implored the assistance of France; Pepin took from the Longobardi the exarchate of Ravenna, and made the pope sovereign over it. The kingdom was afterwards destroyed by Charlemagne, who confined Didier, their last king in a convent. Although Lombardy continued without a sovereign, its laws were retained, and the country was divided into several principalities subject to the western empire. But the spirit of independence was diffused over that portion of Italy; the emperors of Germany granted to some towns, the right of chusing their magistrates. A custom, that the citizens had preserved,—accordant with the genius of Christianity,—the right of electing their bishops, led men to conclude that all power emanated from the people.

**Lombard
republics.**

These and other republican forms determined the inhabitants of large towns to demand charters and more important privileges. All the cities in Lombardy during the twelfth century not only elected their magistrates, but deliberated on their local interests, on the advantages of

^b Chronological tables by John Blair.

making peace and war.^c Frederick Barbarossa was the first emperor, who violating the charters and treaties of his predecessors, attempted to establish absolute power in Italy. Milan was the most important town in Lombardy; besieged by that prince, its inhabitants reduced to a small number by famine, it consented at last to capitulate, but on conditions which the conqueror disdained. A few days afterwards, Milan was changed into a heap of ruins. If the emperor protected the rivals of that large city, he destroyed their freedom, and the magistrates elected by the citizens were succeeded by the *podestas* whom Frederick appointed. The peace which succeeded the noise and confusion of war, was only the stillness of fear. Liberty, although subdued, was not destroyed; the people, unaccustomed to oppression, bore it reluctantly; a secret league conspired to restore their privileges.

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The towns formed for that purpose a confederation, while Frederick, emboldened by success, marched against Rome, with a view to humble the Pope, and to unite his possessions to the empire. But on that occasion at least, the thunders of the Vatican were favourable to the independence of nations. The Romans, animated with the just resentment of their bishop, resisted with courage; heaven seemed to favour their efforts, the plague cut off great numbers in the imperial army. The emperor made a new attempt against Lombardy, but denounced and excommunicated, he was the object of hatred and contempt. The confederate towns gave him battle, his troops were routed and cut to pieces; and Frederick himself saved his life by means of a disguise; at last, abandoned by fortune, he acknowledged the independence of the Lombard republics.

Divisions in opinion are not the least evils in political revolutions, by such causes the inhabitants of the same nation, nay the citizens in the same town, have been changed into irreconcilable enemies. While Barbarossa continued

Guelfs and
Ghibelines.

^c Muratori, Annals of Italy.

BOOK fortunate and victorious, he was surrounded by ambitious
CXXXII. flatterers, ever ready to pay their court to the powerful. The same persons adhered to his successor, after the death of Frederick, and, as in the former struggle, the court of Rome had principally contributed to the success of the people against the empire, Lombardy was then divided into two dominant factions. The partisans of the Pope took the name of *Guelfs*,^d while those of the emperor were called *Ghibelins*. In their contests, both parties were at different times victorious, but the Guelfs more frequently than the Ghibelins.

The freedom and independence gained by the Lombard towns, tended to promote civilization, were favourable to the culture of the arts, to the diffusion of commerce and riches. Some notion may be formed of their resources, from the account given of Milan by a cotemporary writer in the thirteenth century.^e It contained among its two hundred thousand inhabitants, six hundred lawyers, two hundred physicians, and fifty copyists of manuscripts. A body of eight thousand knights, or gentlemen, who could put two hundred and forty thousand men under arms, were maintained within its territory, which included Lodi, Pavia, Bergamo and Como, a hundred and fifty villages and as many castles.

Decline of
the Lombard
republics.

But civil dissensions, the sources of ambition and corruption, proved fatal to the patriotism of the inhabitants, and to the independence of these states. The towns, so determined in defending their privileges against the emperors, chose magistrates whose power became hereditary, and soon degenerated into tyranny. Central Lombardy was the inheritance of the Visconti, Verona of La Scala, the family of Carrara acquired Padua, and that of Gonza-

^d The Guelfs derived their name from an illustrious Bavarian family, allied by marriage with the house of Este. The Ghibelins were so called from a village in Franconia, the birth place of Conrad the Salic, from whom the family of Suabia is descended. See Hallam's Middle Ages; Gibbon's Antiquities of the house of Brunswick.

^e Galvaneus Flamma.

ga, Mantua. Milan and its territory were erected into a duchy, and conferred on a Visconti, by the emperor Ven- BOOK
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ceslas in the year 1395. The same principality passed, in right of his mother, to a descendant of the celebrated James Sforza, who from the condition of a labourer, rose by his talent and courage to the dignity of Constable. When that family became extinct, Charles the Fifth made himself master of the Milanese, which continued in the possession of Spain until the year 1700. After the death of the last duke, the house of Austria succeeded to his territory, and ceded some portion of it to Savoy.

The descendents of the Veneti, in order to escape from the barbarous hordes of Alaric, who invaded Italy in the beginning of the fifth century, sought shelter in the small islands at the mouth of the Brenta. They founded two small towns, Rivoalto and Malamocco. So early as the year 697, the magistrates of these populous islands, anxious to secure their independence, and to form a distinct people, obtained from the emperor Leontius, the privilege of electing a chief, on whom they conferred the title of *Doge* or Duke. Pepin, king of Italy, granted to the rising state, the lands and coast on both sides of the Adige. Rivoalto was united to the neighbouring islands, and became a new town to which the inhabitants gave the name of *Venetia*. In the ninth century, the republic became important from its maritime force; in the twelfth it equipped fleets for the crusades. It was principally owing to the efforts of the Venetians that Constantinople was taken in 1202, a part of the town and territory was in consequence added to their dominions, the doges were styled dukes of Dalmatia, and dukes of five-eighths of the Roman empire, a singular but not accurate title.^f Candia, the Ionian islands, the most of those in the Archipelago, and other important stations, settlements at Acre and Alexandria, served to extend the power and the commerce of Venice.

Republic
of Venice.

^f Hallam's Middle Ages, vol. i. p. 472.

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Ancient go-
vernment.

The Venetian government consisted first of councillors, nominated by the people, who shared with the doge the legislative authority. The last magistrate possessed great prerogatives, but they were gradually restricted lest the dignity should become hereditary.

A numerous and representative council was instituted; it was chosen by twelve electors whom the people named; but in time the members that formed it, arrogated the right of nominating the twelve electors, and of confirming or rejecting their successors before they resigned their functions. The frequent election of the same members resulted as a necessary consequence from this confusion of powers; and a dignity which was intended to be the reward of virtuous citizens, became the exclusive portion of certain families. When these innovations in the primitive form of government, were established, a senate was instituted, and the senators had the right of making peace or war; but they, as well as the councillors of the doge, were elected every year by the great council. The discontent and revolts in the fourteenth century, occasioned by a system that annihilated the fundamental principles of a republican government, led to the formation of the celebrated *Council of Ten*, and in their infernal police were organized the insidious spy, the hired informer and the base assassin.

Italian re-
public.

Such was the state of the dutchy of Milan, and the Venetian republic; but in 1796, after the victory of Marengo, their territories united with those of Modena and a portion of the states of the church, formed the Cisalpine republic, afterwards denominated the Italian republic until the year 1805, when it was changed into the kingdom of Italy. The ancient name of Lombardy had been long forgotten, when, by the negotiations at Vienna, Austria having obtained Milan, Mantua, Venice and the Valteline, united their territories, and formed the Lombard-Venetian kingdom.

Limits of
the Lom-
bard-Vene-
tian king-
dom.

It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the Tyrol, on the west and the south by the Sardinian possessions, the dutchies of Parma, Modena, and the states of

the church; on the east by the Adriatic Gulf and the kingdom of Illyria. It may be equal in superficial extent to BOOK CXXXII. two thousand three hundred and sixty-eight square leagues.* The lake Maggiore, the Tessino and the greater part of the Po are its natural limits.

Winter lasts generally about two months, the fields are clothed with verdure in February, and the heat of summer is felt in May. The grain and the ordinary kinds of fruit are ripe in June or July, and the vintage takes place in October. The air is salubrious in most parts of the kingdom, but the rice fields occasion in some places putrid miasms; the environs of Mantua and Rovigo are exposed to unwholesome exhalations, and the marshes are dangerous to strangers.

The valley of the Po, which in the time of Polybius was ^{Valley of the Po.} a marshy country shaded by forests, the haunt of wild boars, does not furnish at present a sufficient quantity of timber for its inhabitants. The treasures of Ceres and Pomona have succeeded the peaceful retreats of the hamadryads. Extensive meadows watered by the streams that descend from the Alps, yield six crops of hay in the same year. The horned cattle are not inferior to any in Europe, the peasants devote much attention to them; cheese and the produce of the dairy are their principal wealth.

Some customs of past times still exist in the Milanese; heavy waggons with low and massive wheels, ^{Ancient recollections.} drawn by several pairs of oxen, the tips of their long horns, covered with iron balls, their heads adorned with ribbons and garlands, the country women with their hair folded in tresses and bound together by a silver bodkin, the shepherds carrying instead of a hook, a staff in the form of a crosier, a mantle hanging from their left shoulder, the arched heads of the sheep, their pendant ears and light forms similar to many ancient basso-relievos, announce Italy and its classic associations. These and other characters which the stranger observes on his arrival, form a striking contrast with the wretchedness of the peasantry,

* M. Thielen considers it equal to 85,194 square miles.

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Industry.

but he becomes habituated to other contrasts, still more painful, for Italy is the country of luxury and poverty.

The bee and the silk-worm are reared with great success in Lombardy; an enormous quantity of wax is consumed in the churches, and the manufacturing of silk is among the few branches of industry, in which the people are not inferior to their neighbours. Cotton spinning, cloth, and linen manufactories are not without activity, and it has been estimated that the mean product of the exports amounts to L.3,542,000. Commercial communications are facilitated by excellent roads, rivers, and canals.

Constitution.

The Lombard Venetian kingdom has been declared an integral part of the Austrian empire. As the country was long governed by French laws, absolute power has been mitigated by the constitution of 1815. The forms of national representation have been established, but the members that compose it, have only the right of deliberating on certain questions, which the government proposes. The emperor is represented by a viceroy, and the kingdom is divided into two governments, those of Milan and Venice. The first is subdivided into nine districts or *delegations*, and the second into eight.

Milan.

Milan, the capital of the kingdom, and the residence of the viceroy, is situated in a vast plain on the banks of the Olona. If its old ramparts and new walks be included, it may be equal in circumference to ten thousand yards, but the part which is inhabited does not amount to more than six thousand. Eleven gates lead to different parts of the country, and the length of Milan, or the space between the western and Tessino gates may be about three thousand yards. The number of houses is not less than four thousand eight hundred, and the population amounts to a hundred and forty thousand inhabitants. If the streets were large and straight, it might merit the title of *Milan the Magnificent*. It has been justly remarked that mean looking houses are as rare as palaces in other towns. The most spacious streets are called *corsi*, both because they serve the purpose of public walks, and because they are the places where race horses run. The

squares or courts are almost all irregular and without ornaments; that of the cathedral is long and narrow. BOOK
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The building itself, one of the most remarkable in Cathedral. Europe, was begun in the year 1386, by duke John Galeas Visconti; but many ages may elapse before it be finished. If little has been done with the two millions of franks which Napoleon granted for the purpose of completing the *Duomo* or cathedral, it is not likely that much can be effected in a short period with the hundred and forty-four thousand franks paid annually by Austria. The building is about four hundred and fifty-four feet in length, two hundred and seventy in breadth, and the arched roof is two hundred and thirty-two in height. The highest turret is not less than three hundred and thirty-five feet above the ground. Few Gothic buildings are so much loaded with ornaments, white marble statues appear in every niche, in every angle, on every turret, and round every spire; their total number has been estimated at more than four thousand, but many of them are so concealed as to be only seen by the birds which perch on them. Fifty-two marble pillars, each eighty-four feet in height, and twenty-four in circumference support the vast edifice. Below the cathedral, and in a subterranean chapel, are deposited, in a silver shrine, the remains of St. Charles Borromeo.

The church of St. Ambrose contains the tombs of several Other
buildings. saints, and also of Bernard, king of Italy, and his wife Bertha. It was in the same church that the emperors of Germany were crowned. The ancient convent of the Dominicans was celebrated for the famous painting of Leonardo da Vinci, representing the Last Supper, not a fresco but an oil painting on the wall of the refectory, and occupying a whole side of that low hall, in other words, about thirty feet in length by fifteen in height. But it has been so much disfigured by time, smoke, and damp, that it is to be feared no trace of it will be discernible in a short period. It could hardly be believed that the municipal authorities at Milan, had changed the refectory into a watch-house, nay even into a prison, where French soldiers guarded their

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prisoners of war. If the authorities were so regardless of a painting which had been the greatest ornament in their city for more than three hundred years, it is not wonderful that French soldiers used it as a target. "As to those by whom the mischief was done," says M. Simond, "an old woman who had lived near the refectory for the last seventeen years informed me, that she had heard of soldiers firing at the picture before she resided there, that a soldier of the sixth French hussars told her, he himself with others had done so, not knowing what it was, when guarding prisoners confined in the hall, and that these prisoners, men of all nations, threw stones and brickbats against it by way of amusement. When Buonaparte came to Milan he went to see the picture, and finding the hall still used as a place of confinement, *he shrugged his shoulders and stamped with his foot*, said the woman, and ordering the prisoners away, a door was walled up, and a ballustrade or wooden partition was drawn across the room before it."^h The church of St. Alexander is remarkable for its fine portal, that of St. Vittore is so much overloaded with gilt ornaments that it resembles rather a gaudy play-house than a temple intended for devotion.

**Etymology
of Medio-
lanum.**

Several authors have exhausted their etymological ingenuity in discovering the origin of Mediolanum, the ancient name of the town.ⁱ It was not so called from two Tuscan warriors, nor from its position between two rivers, nor from a pig half covered with wool, (*medio lana*,) which was seen by Bellovesus at the place where he founded the city, for it is certain that other towns inhabited by the Gauls, bore the same name. Several antiquities prove that Milan was in its splendour while the Roman empire flourished. Sixteen marble columns may still be seen near the church of San Lorenzo, they are supposed to be the remains of the baths built by Maximian-Hercules, the asso-

^h Simond's Travels in Italy, p. 12.

ⁱ Alciat, Hist. Mediolani.—Isidore, Origines.—Sidonius. Appollinaris, l. vii. c. 1, &c.

ciate of Diocletian in the empire. The principal public buildings in Milan are the archiepiscopal palace, adorned with fine paintings, the royal palace, that of the regency, the palace Marini, now possessed by the minister of finance, the palace or court of justice, and the mint, a building in point of architecture, unworthy of Milan, but remarkable for its fine collection of medals and Italian coins. The barracks which were built at Milan by Eugene Beauharnois, when viceroy of Italy, are admitted to be the finest in Europe. Twelve or fourteen palaces of elegant architecture, and richly decorated, belong to different individuals, and evince the opulence of some Milanese families.

The two most frequented of the four or five theatres in Milan, are the opera, and the theatre of Girolamo. The first or the Scala so called, because it occupies the site of an ancient church of the same name, is a very large building. The six rows of boxes give it an imposing appearance; but small rooms are attached to them, the spectators seldom listen to the music; conversation and gambling are considered more attractive; indeed it is often impossible to hear the performance from the noise that prevails in every part of the house. A reading room is open in the Scala from mid-day to the evening, and in the evening, numbers repair to different gaming tables. Thus, the purpose of the Scala has been perverted, and it might be better that it were closed, than that the young should come in contact with gamblers and the profligate persons who frequent it.

The Girolamo is considered the best theatre of puppets or marionets in Italy. The precision and vivacity in the motions of the actors produce a complete illusion. The origin of these small wooden figures can only be discovered in vague traditions of a very ancient period. An intrepid French traveller brought from Egypt small wooden figures, moveable by springs, and not inferior to those of Nuremberg.* It appears that the Egyptians inhumated, these

* M. Calliaud, who visited Mevoe and the White River.

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playthings with their children, a custom which existed at Rome after the introduction of Christianity. In ancient times, a young woman before her marriage, sacrificed to Venus the doll that had been given to her in childhood.¹ Authors make mention of small moveable figures, that attracted crowds to the streets;^m but as M. Millin observes, the moderns were the first who substituted puppets for actors in their theatres. The person that contributed most to improve and perfect these exhibitions was Philip Acciajuoli, a knight of Malta. Tragedies, operas, comedies and ballets are represented in the Girolamo. Crowds resort to them; the humble shop-keeper, the wealthy banker and the haughty noble express their delight by hearty plaudits. The *lazzi* of Girolamo are burlesque personages in which are united whatever is most ludicrous in the *polichinelle* of Naples, the *arlequino* of Venice, and the *gianduja* of Turin.

Public
works.

The immense esplanade that encompasses the remains of the ancient castle in Milan, was little better than an unwholesome marsh which the French transformed into an agreeable walk, shaded by trees that extend to a distance of more than ten thousand feet; it was then known by the name of *Foro Buonaparte*. A triumphal arch adorned with basso-relievos in white marble, was erected during the French government at the end of the road that leads across the Simplon. At no great distance from the triumphal arch, stands the circus, also a monument of the reign of Napoleon, and one from its size not unlike the monuments of the Romans. The seats which are raised above each other might contain thirty thousand spectators, and the arena is set apart for races and public games. The Corso near the eastern gate is lined with fine houses, and the rows of trees that extend between the same gate and the Roman gate, are often crowded by fashionable

¹ Perseus, — Satire ii.^m Horace Lib. i. sat. 2. Lib. ii. sat. 7. Aulus Gellius, Lib. xiv. cap. 1.

equipages; it is there that the Milanese display their address in conducting their light phaetons. BOOK
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Our limits prevent us from describing the Ambrosian library, founded by the cardinal Borromeo, and that of Brera in the royal palace of sciences and arts, an elegant building to which are attached a fine observatory and a botanical garden containing many exotic plants. The same reason prevents us from mentioning the numerous hospitals and charitable institutions; but it may be remarked that the application of Jenner's happy discovery, to whom the ancients would have erected temples, is more diffused in the Lombard-Venetian kingdom than in the rest of Italy. If no ravages are now made by the small-pox in Milan, it is owing to the vigilance of government, and to the enlightened zeal of the clergy. Sworn vaccinators are always ready to impede its effects; the managers of hospitals and other charities grant no assistance to children unless their parents be furnished with certificates of vaccination. Every three months, the country curates read from the pulpit, the names of the individuals, if there be any, who have died of the small pox. They remind their parishioners of the duties they owe to their country, which commands them not to neglect the means of cure.^a If an individual be seized with variola, and if his physician or one of his relations does not declare it, they are liable to a penalty of a hundred franks. The authorities fix an inscription printed in large characters on his house, and contagion is thus prevented. The members of the family who may have approached the invalid are not permitted to communicate with others, before he be cured; and if he dies, the body is interred without the usual ceremonies.

Milan has always held a distinguished rank in literature and in the arts. Virgil studied, and Valerius Maximus was born in the town. It has produced in modern times Octavio Terrari, the antiquary, Cardan, the mathematician, and Beccaria, the celebrated jurist. The same town car-

^a Voyage en Italie par le Docteur Valentin.

BOOK ries on a considerable trade, and possesses many manufac-
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Monza.

Monza, at some leagues to the north of Milan, is adorned with a fine palace and a cathedral, possessing greater treasures than any other in the kingdom. One may see there the famous iron crown of which the date and origin are unknown. The same town, although its population amounts hardly to six thousand persons, existed in the time of the Romans, and was then called Moditia or Modocetia. Its agreeable position on the banks of the Lambro, made Theodoric, king of the Goths, choose it for a residence.

Pavia.

Pavia rises on the banks of the Tessino, in the southern frontier of the kingdom; it was formerly called Ticinum from the name of the river. It was a place of some importance under the emperors, and according to Pliny, it is more ancient than Milan.^o Tacitus mentions it, indeed few towns in Italy are so pleasantly situated. The Longobards chose it for their capital, but antiquarians are unable to explain the origin of its name. It was laid waste by the Marshal Lautrec who, by a new species of barbarism, sought to avenge the defeat of Francis the First. Pavia is surrounded with massive walls, half ruined towers, bastions and ditches; the number of inhabitants exceeds twenty-two thousand. The streets are broad, and the great square is encompassed with porticos. The finely built cathedral indicates the period of the regeneration of art. A long piece of wood, not unlike the old mast of a boat, is preserved with great care in the cathedral, and shown to strangers, as the lance of Orlando. Of the other eighteen churches, St. Peter's is most worthy of notice for its Lombard architecture; the people suppose that the ashes of St. Augustin rest in its vaults. The town possesses a theatre and several fine buildings; its university dates from the time of Charlemagne.

Lodi possesses a fine square encompassed with arcades, eight suburbs, eighteen thousand inhabitants, an old citadel,—now useless, lofty walls, twenty churches, a large hospital, a theatre, and several palaces belonging to different individuals, porcelain works, silk manufactories, and, lastly, a considerable trade in cheese, which is called Parmesan. It is situated on the banks of the Adda, and is celebrated on account of the victory gained by the French on the 10th of May 1796. BOOK
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Como may be about eight leagues to the north of Milan ; Como. it rises on the southern extremity of a lake to which it gives its name. It could hardly be inferred from its narrow and tortuous streets that it was a royal town ; it claims, however, a greater honour, it was the birth-place of Pliny the younger. Although the architecture of the marble cathedral is partly Gothic and partly modern, it is the only building worthy of notice in the town. The lake of Como is the Larius of the ancients. The picturesque valley of the Adda, or the Valteline, extends beyond the romantic banks of the lake to the base of the Alps. That valley, once a part of Switzerland, afterwards of France, was united under the Austrian empire to the Lombard-Venetian kingdom. Sandrio or the chief town does not contain more than three thousand five hundred inhabitants.

Beyond the chain which bounds the valley on the south, Bergamo. and between two small rivers,—the Brembo and the Serio, is situated Bergamo, a royal town, the *Bergamum* of the Romans. It was pillaged and destroyed by Attila, rebuilt by the Lombards, and made a free town by the successors of Charlemagne. While Venice was in its splendour, Bergamo was added to the territory of the republic. It carries on a considerable trade in iron and in silk ; the inhabitants are industrious and comparatively affluent.

The ancient town of Cremona, situated in a pleasant valley, is encompassed with ditches, walls and bastions, commanded by the citadel of Santa Croce, and watered by the Po ; a canal which extends from that river, communicates with the Oglio. It was founded by the Cen-

BOOK *omani*; a Celtic people who called it *Cremon*, from which
CXXXII. its present name has been derived. Faithful to the cause of Brutus, its territory was divided among the soldiers of Augustus. It was sacked by the troops of Vespasian, and afterwards pillaged by the Goths in the year 630. It experienced the same treatment from the emperor Barbarossa. Marshal Villeroy was taken prisoner at Cremona by the Austrians in 1702; and in 1799 the latter gained some advantage over the French, under its walls. The town holds a great reputation in Italy and in most parts of Europe for its musical instruments, particularly its violins. It occupies a considerable extent of ground, not less than two leagues in circumference; its population amounts to twenty-three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The streets are straight, broad and well paved; the palaces are large, but they are all Gothic buildings. The Duomo or cathedral, the most remarkable of its forty-five churches, is surmounted by a tower which rises to the height of three hundred and seventy-two feet, and is supposed to be higher than any other in Italy. As Cremona is long and narrow, it has been compared to a vessel, of which the tower is the mast.^p

Brescia. Brescia, at ten leagues to the north of Cremona, is also surrounded with ramparts and ditches; its streets are broad and regular, and it contains thirty-two thousand inhabitants. The palace of justice may be worthy of notice for its mixed architecture, the Gothic and the modern, the interior is adorned with fresco paintings. The episcopal palace which has been lately finished, is remarkable for its elegant peristyle, and the cathedral for its bold arches, paintings, statues and rich altars. The town possesses an extensive commerce, and its fire arms are considered the best in Italy.

Mantua. Mantua, says Millin, recalls many associations, it was the birthplace of Virgil, it is connected with the glory and liberality of the Gonzagas. Enclosed by an immense marsh, formed by the inundations of the Mincio, it has the ap-

^p Voyage dans le Milanais, by Millin, tome ii,

pearance of an impregnable town; but the waters are unwholesome, and occasion dangerous diseases, neither do they form an inaccessible barrier, for Mantua has been more than once taken; many consider it, however, one of the strongest towns in Italy, and it is believed to have been built by the Etruscans three centuries before the foundation of Rome.¹ It contained fifty thousand inhabitants in the seventeenth century, but its present population amounts hardly to half the number. Most of the streets are broad, all of them are straight; the squares are large and regular; the fortifications are kept in good repair. The town boasts of having given birth to Virgil, and the inhabitants take care to remind strangers of that circumstance, for his bust is seen on one of the eight gates, and a monument in honour of the poet rises on the principal square—the Piazza di Virgilio. The cathedral was built after the designs of Julio Romano, but as a piece of architecture, it cannot be compared with the palace of Te, a very fine building, so called from its resemblance to the letter T. The ashes of Tasso, the modern Virgil, rest in the church of St. Egida. The Austrian government has been at considerable expense in rendering Mantua more salubrious, in draining part of its marshes, and in constructing new fortifications and demolishing the old, by which a passage has been opened for the stagnant water. Although silk, leather, and cloth are made in the town, its commerce is only carried on through the medium of the Jews.

All the towns that have been as yet described, depend on the government of Milan; before we give any account of those under the government of Venice, some remarks may be made on the insalubrity of certain districts in Upper Italy. We have already had occasion to allude to the poverty and wretchedness of the inhabitants in some Milanese villages at the base of the mountains, which form the northern limits. The villagers are exposed to a disease

¹ Rudolphe de Jenny.

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which has been termed *pellagra*, and which, according to physicians, was unknown a century ago. It is a cutaneous affection, and the external characters are brown or black spots, that appear on every part of the body except the face. Those that are afflicted with it, says Dr. Valentin,^r are emaciated, weak and melancholy, oppressed by hypochondria, and tormented with pains that extend along the vertebral column. In some cases the same disease is accompanied with alarming symptoms of delirium. The *pellagra* is often fatal, and in many instances it has excited its victims to commit suicide; it breaks out in the spring, increases with the heat of summer, and terminates at the approach of winter. The cause of the disease has not yet been ascertained, but it may perhaps be attributed to a scanty and unwholesome diet; at all events it is very uncommon in the government of Venice, a country, in point of climate, much more unhealthy than the Milanese. The effects of the climate begin to be apparent near the banks of the Adige, and according to some statements, the neighbourhood of Peschiera, near the lake of Garda, is so dangerous to strangers, that French regiments used to decide by lot, which of them should form the garrison of the town.^s The story, it may be admitted, does not appear very probable, as it is not customary for soldiers to choose the place of their garrison. Travellers affirm that the territory of Verona is equally unhealthy, it is certain that the ravages of poverty and disease are too apparent in the town of Rovigo.

Verona.

The old walls of Verona are commanded on the north by hills covered with vineyards and country houses. The Adige divides it into two equal parts; it may be about four leagues in circumference, and the population exceeds sixty thousand inhabitants. Different opinions are entertained concerning its origin, but it is known that it was an important place in the time of Strabo. The fine gates that

^r Voyage en Italie, par le Docteur Valentin.^s Simond's Travels in Italy.

adorn it, are worthy of a great city, but the interior corresponds ill with the entrance; for although some streets are spacious and well paved, the greater number are small and narrow. Several good paintings of the Venetian school, a museum and a valuable collection of antiquities are contained in the townhouse. The venerable witnesses of its ancient splendour may be seen near these modern collections; the amphitheatre, the most remarkable of any, and still in a good state of preservation, rises at no great distance from them. It is difficult to observe its ancient monuments without recollecting that Verona was the birthplace of the elder Pliny and Cornelius Nepos. Those who admire the paintings in its churches, may soon discover that the modern Verona was the native town of Paulo Veronese.

The fruitfulness of the soil in the neighbourhood of Padua, Vicenza, Treviso and Belluno, forms a remarkable contrast with the poverty of the inhabitants. Indolence and want of education are the principal causes, immorality and every sort of vice, the fatal effects; it is not safe to travel at night in Upper Italy; although the robbers in that part of the country are less formidable than at Terracina or Fondi, strangers are as liable to have their luggage and effects stolen. The remote villages are so many dens of thieves; those who travel from Verona to Venice, never think of passing the night at any other place than Vicenza or Padua.¹ The last town is of a triangular form, it occupies a space of more than three leagues in circumference, and contains a population of forty-seven thousand inhabitants. The antiquity of Padua is not doubtful, what Livy says concerning it,² who was born within its walls, and the beautiful verses of Virgil,³ who attributes its foundation to Antenor, prove that it existed twelve centuries before the Christian era. It was called *Pata-vium* by the ancients, and if Strabo may be credited, who

¹ Simond's Travels in Italy.

² Lib. x. c. ii.

³ Eniad, Lib. i. v. 242.

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extolled its commerce and its wealth, it could raise long before his time an army of a hundred and twenty thousand men.¹ The Greek geographer may be supposed to have exaggerated, or more probably, some error may have crept into his text, but different Roman poets attest the prosperity and the wealth of Padua.² The squares are spacious and adorned with fine buildings, but the arcades are low and dismal, and most of the streets are narrow, dirty and ill paved. At Padua, as in every other Italian town, there are many paintings in the churches, and the paintings as well as the churches are the works of great masters. The number of the latter is not less than ninety-five, and it is said that the church of St. Antony contains the ashes of its patron. The village of Arquà at some leagues to the south-west of Padua, is not only remarkable for its picturesque site, it contains the tomb of Petrarch, and the house inhabited by the poet, in which part of his furniture has been preserved.

Vicenza.

Vicenza, the ancient Vicentia, is peopled by thirty thousand inhabitants, and encompassed with a double wall. The streets are irregular, but in point of architecture and fine buildings, it may be compared with any town in Upper Italy. Few antiquities are contained within its walls; some ruins of a theatre, which is supposed to have been built by Augustus, the remains of an imperial palace, and a statue of Iphigenia, preserved by the Dominicans, are all that have escaped the ravages of time, and the devastations of barbarians. Vicenza was the birthplace of the celebrated architect Palladio, who embellished his native city.

Treviso.

The streets of Treviso are not more regular than those in Vicenza, the most of the squares are large and decorated with arcades; the townhouse is a fine building, and the cathedral possesses several valuable ornaments. The population may be equal to fifteen thousand souls. Although Belluno is a royal town, it contains only eight thousand

¹ I. lib. v. c. ii.² Martial, Epig. Lib. xiv—Juvenal, Sat. viii.

inhabitants. Udina, another royal town, and the metropolis of Friuli, is built on the canal of Roya. A large watchhouse, one of the principal edifices, is adorned with marble statues and columns. The *Giardino*, a fine public walk, shaded with trees that were planted by the French, is situated in front of the castle. BOOK
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The *lagune* extend near the coasts of the Adriatic Gulf, and their stagnant waters diffuse an unwholesome atmosphere over the scattered habitations that surround them. The sickly and pallid faces of the inhabitants are remarked by the strangers that visit the country. The *lagune* are soon confounded with the sea, and Venice is seen rising from the ocean, the element of its former wealth and power. Venice, one of the oldest and most singular towns in Europe, stands on a hundred and fifty islands in the midst of a vast marsh, they are united by more than three hundred bridges, and appear to form only a single island. It is equal to nearly three leagues in circumference; a large canal divides it into two equal parts, and other canals lined with houses, form the streets in which the monotonous sound of oars may be heard instead of the noise of carriages. The groups of houses that rise between the canals, are divided by narrow streets or lanes for foot passengers. Venice, notwithstanding its position, is not subject to the unwholesome influence of the marshes, the continual motion of the billows agitates and purifies the air. No springs rise from the sandy soil; some cisterns belonging to private individuals, and a hundred and sixty public cisterns furnish water to its hundred and ten thousand inhabitants. The lagunes and canals of Venice are its chief security, ships of war cannot attack it, and before the French expedition which took place in 1797, it was never entered by a hostile army.

The church of St. Mark, an edifice remarkable for its Buildings. rich and costly ornaments, is by no means the finest or largest in Venice, but it has been said, and not without reason, that it resembles nothing else in the world. The broad and low front is divided into five arcades, not un-

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CXXXII. like the arches of a bridge, and the entrances are formed by five gates of bronze. Above these arcades, a gallery or balcony with a marble balustrade, stretches across the whole front, and, in the same gallery are placed the four bronze horses, supposed to have been founded at Corinth. They were removed to Athens; they served to adorn the triumphal arches raised to Nero and Trajan at Rome; they accompanied Constantine to Byzantium, and were transported from Constantinople to Venice in the thirteenth century; lastly, under the imperial government, they were placed on the Carrousel at Paris, from whence they were returned to their present position in 1815. The Parisians deplored their loss, the day of their arrival was a day of joy to the Venetians; one might almost have imagined that they had recovered their independence with these monuments of their ancient greatness; yet a few days afterwards, when the statue of Napoleon was overthrown, the same people expressed their discontent. The upper part of the building is covered with pyramids, statues, spires and crosses; the interior is gloomy and loaded with columns, statues and gildings; the great altar, or that of St. Sophia, was brought from Constantinople with the bronze horses.

Place of
St. Mark.

The place of St. Mark, the finest in Venice, may bear a comparison with any other in Europe. It is about eight hundred feet long by three hundred and fifty broad; but it ought not to be judged by its dimensions; when seen from the sea, it has a magnificent appearance. Two columns formed by two single blocks of granite, rise near the quay, they were brought from Constantinople, but they appear to be of Egyptian workmanship, the one supports the statue of St. Theodore, and the other, the winged lion of St. Mark, which, during several years, was the ornament of the invalids at Paris. The massive architecture of the ducal palace on the right, has something of the Moorish style. The royal palace, a modern edifice on the left, adorned with arcades and pillars, the church of St. Mark, the mint, the library and several fine buildings,—the works of the architect

Lansorino, form the enclosure of St. Mark's—the scene of Venetian festivals, and the place where strangers and the idle townsmen assemble. The finest shops and the most frequented coffee-houses in Venice are situated under the arcades of the same square. BOOK
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The part nearest the quay is called the *Piazzetta*; at no great distance, is the palace once destined for the sovereign, ^{Ducal palace.}—but little attention is paid to decorum, for from its windows may be seen the place where criminals are executed; the instruments of death are erected between two pillars near the street where buffoons and puppets amuse the Venetians. The ancient residence of the doge, the ducal palace where the state inquisitors used to sit, and which, like the seraglio at Constantinople, has been more than once stained with the heads of the victims, that were exposed on the outer balustrade, may prove that an aristocracy armed with republican laws, can be as sanguinary as a despotism armed with the Ottoman scimitar. It requires a day to examine the interior of the edifice; colossal statues are placed on the staircase; the galleries are adorned with the masterpieces of Titian, Paul Veronese, Corregio, and Alberti; the library consists of a hundred and fifty thousand volumes and a thousand manuscripts. Not the least valuable ornaments are several ancient statues of admirable workmanship.

Strangers admire the fine portal of St. Mary of Nazareth, the front of St. Jeremiah, which resembles a palace rather than a church; the peristyle of St. Simon, and the noble architecture of St. Roche. Almost all the theatres are called after some saint; St. Luke's is one of the largest; operas are acted in St. Benedict's; tragedies, comedies, and other dramatic compositions in St. Angelo; but the finest theatre in Venice, or that of St. Felix, was finished in 1793. Protected by these venerable names, the actors are not exposed to the same unjust prejudices which exist in other catholic countries.

The arsenal, including the dock-yards of Venice, formerly the most celebrated and the largest in Europe, was ^{for Naval arsenal.}

BOOK once filled with ships, materials for building, and all kinds
CXXXII. of arms ; the outer wall measures between two and three miles in circumference, and within these walls, during the republic, two thousand five hundred workmen were constantly employed ; stillness and repose have now succeeded the noise and activity of commerce. Two white marble lions placed at the entrance of the arsenal towards the town, were also a conquest of the Venetians, they were transported from Athens. The port of Venice, although at present the largest in the Austrian empire, may in time be covered with the deposits of sand that are every day accumulating.

One may judge of what Venice has been by the number of its edifices and charitable institutions ; thirty-six Catholic churches, two Greek churches, an Armenian and Lutheran chapel, seven synagogues, a foundling hospital, two lazaret-houses, and twenty-three hospitals, serve to recal its past splendour, and render its decay more apparent.

Instruction. The artisans form at Venice several corporations, and each corporation maintains a school ; the number of corporations amounts to sixteen or eighteen, and some of them meet in sumptuous buildings adorned with paintings and statues. It might be inferred from such institutions that the Venetians were better informed and more enlightened than any other people. Such, however, is by no means the case, but they may be said to be less ignorant than the other Italians.

Gondolieri. The *gondolieri* are different from the other inhabitants, they form a distinct population, and the cause may be attributed to the fraternity or union which subsists amongst them ; but they are no longer gay sailors singing Venetian airs, or reciting the verses of Tasso, they have discovered in their simplicity that they are without a country. All these men can read and write, the other workmen in the town can do the same, but the knowledge of the wealthier classes is not more extensive.

- The public libraries are ill attended, the others are made up of novels and romances, so that with the exception of one or two gifted persons, the rest are not better educated than the lower orders in the town that gave birth to Algarotti, Gasparo Gazzi, Goldoni, the Paoli, Bembo, and other great men. The Venetians have no taste for literature; music, however, appears to be a favourite amusement. According to their own confession, the wealthy classes pass their time in the following manner. "People of fashion rise at eleven or twelve o'clock, pay a few visits, and idle away their time till three, when they dine; they lie down in summer during one hour, at least, after dinner; they dress and go to the coffee-house or *casino* till nine, then to the opera, which is another *casino*, then to the coffee-house for an hour or two. They do not go to bed in summer before sun-rise. Many of the most saving dine at the restaurateurs, and the price of their dinner varies from sixteen sous to two franks, or from eightpence to twentypence English money."^a Although there is a wide difference between the past and present state of Venice, it is still one of the greatest marts in Italy. It has its fabrics and manufactures, a chamber and a tribunal of commerce, an exchange and an insurance company. The last doges celebrated in the island of Malamocco, their marriage with the Adriatic, but Venice could hardly then be called a maritime power.

A town was built near the ancient queen of the Adriatic, on the island of Torcello, and its ruins announce that it was once an important city. The remains of a church enriched with mosaics and paintings, the ruins of a palace, once the residence of a barbarian conqueror, a market-place and a throne raised above it, where Attila, king of the Huns, administered justice, attract the curious to the island,—the town itself has disappeared.

Reduced to the state of a chief town in an Austrian province, what power can prevent the ruin of Venice?

^a Simond's Travels in Italy.

BOOK Those who have seen it forty years ago, can no longer re-
CXXXII. cognise it; such changes have taken place in the ca-
pital, which had its navy in the sixth century, which pro-
tected Petrarch and encouraged the arts, when Europe
was in the darkness of barbarism, and which, during nine
hundred years, was treated on equal terms with the great-
est sovereigns.

BOOK CXXXIII.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued—Description of Italy—Third Section—
Sardinian Monarchy—Principality of Monaco.*

THE kingdom of Sardinia consists of the island of the same name, divided into two provinces, and of eight divisions or lieutenancies, making up forty small provinces in the continent. The extent of the latter, from north to south, may be about eighty-eight leagues, and the breadth about forty-six; they form a superficies of two thousand three hundred square leagues. They are bounded on the north by the lake of Geneva, and Switzerland, on the east by the Lombard-Venetian kingdom, the duchies of Parma and Massa, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by France.

The southern banks of the Leman lake were inhabited a long time before the Christian era, by the *Nantuates*, the banks of the Doria were peopled by the *Salassi*, concerning whom Strabo has left us some particulars.* According to that geographer, the greater part of their territory was situated in a deep valley—the valley of Aosta; he adds, that they were in possession of gold mines; but it appears

* Strabo, Lib. iv. c. 6, sect. 5.

BOOK more probable that they obtained the metal from washings
CXXXIII. on the alluvial lands, for he affirms that the *Duria*, the present Doria, supplied them with water for carrying on their works, but as by this means the river was often dried, it gave rise to violent contentions between them and their neighbours, who used the water for agricultural purposes. They made war and peace more than once with the Romans, but in their combats, their defiles and mountains were more serviceable to them than their armies. They were bold enough to impose and lay a tax of a drachma on every soldier in the army of Decius Brutus, while he fled from Modena; and they made Messala pay for the firewood and trees necessary for his troops encamped in the neighbourhood. They pillaged on one occasion the imperial treasury, and under the pretext of working at the roads and ditches, they rolled large stones and rocks against the Roman legions. The revolts of the Salassi exasperated the Romans, and they were destroyed by Augustus; forty thousand were sold as slaves, and four thousand were incorporated in the pretorian guard. Three thousand Romans sent by Augustus, founded the town of *Augusta*, in the very place where Varro their conqueror was encamped with his army. † The same town has given its name to the valley of Aosta or Aosta.

The Taurini inhabited the country between the Alps, the Po, and the Doria; like the Salassi they were of Celtic origin. The Statielli, concerning whom little is known, inhabited the right bank of the Tanaro, but the country on the west, at the base of the Alps, belonged to a people that were called by the ancients, the *Vagienni*, *Vageni* or *Bageni*.^b The territory of the Intemelii, an inconsiderable tribe, extended from the southern sides of the Alps to the sea. Lastly, the Apuani who gave their name to the town of Apua, the present *Pontremoli*, were settled on the southern sides of the Apenines, in the country between Genoa and Spezzia. The territories of the four last people

^b Silius Italicus, l. viii.

made up the Roman province of Liguria, the others were included in the Gauls. **BOOK
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The country near the Leman lake was called Savoy (*Sapaudia*), about the fifth century. It was governed at different times by Burgundian, French, and Provençal princes; the emperor Conrad the Salic, raised it into a county, and made it over to Count Humbert. Different domains were added to it in the fifteenth century, and it received the title of dutchy under the emperor Sigismund.

The house of Savoy ranks among the most ancient in Europe. But as its origin is involved in darkness, it is not surprising that genealogists have traced it to Wittikind—the Saxon chief who may be considered the Japhet of the princes in modern Europe—all claim him for their founder. The family of Savoy, sprung from Humbert, who reigned in the eleventh century, might prove an antiquity of eight hundred years. Victor Amadeus the Second was the founder of the Sardinian kingdom, hating the cares of a throne, he resigned in 1730 in favour of his son Charles Emmanuel, whose ingratitude brought his father to the grave. The reign of Charles Emmanuel was glorious, but in consequence of the influence which the French acquired from their conquests over European states, his successors lost all their continental possessions, and the kingdom of Sardinia, confined within the limits of the island, did not recover its ancient rank, before the last treaties by which its continental possessions were restored.

The Sardinian language is not pure Italian, many Latin, Castilian, Greek and even German words are contained in it; that mixed language is most diffused in the island of Sardinia. Two very different dialects are spoken on the continent, the Savoyard, which according to M. Balbi, offers many varieties, and the Vaudois which is spoken in Piemont, and chiefly in the province of Pignerol.

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Religion.

The country is divided into twenty diocesses and six archbishoprics; catholicism is the religion of the state, all the rest are merely tolerated. Twenty-two thousand Vaudois, residing in the vallies of the Alps, who for at least twelve centuries have professed a worship analogous to the reformed religion, bear in silence the privation of their privileges as citizens. They are excluded from the learned professions; all the scientific or literary situations in the different colleges are shut against them; although a brave and a warlike people, they can never rise in the army. The Jews, still more unfortunate, cannot hold landed property, and were obliged to give up the possessions which they acquired under the French government. In the towns, they are only permitted to exercise their industry in particular quarters, and are besides compelled to wear a badge by which they may be known. From these facts relative to the Protestants and the Jews, it may be easy to judge of the spirit that animates the Sardinian government, and the discontent that prevails among the different classes of a people, who were dissatisfied, and not without some cause, under the French government, but who have since been deprived of the blessings which they enjoyed, without obtaining any redress for their grievances.

Legislation.

When the king of Sardinia was restored to his dominions, the congress at Vienna recommended, relatively to Genoa, something like a liberal government, at all events the exclusion of an oppressive one. The French civil and commercial codes had been established, but they have been since so far changed that the records of births and marriages are restored to the clergy, and the ancient mode of hereditary succession is at present in full force. The penal and criminal codes are set aside, and the old barbarous jurisprudence of Piemont, (the torture excepted), is at present the law of the land.

When the united sovereigns of Europe gave new territories to his Sardinian majesty, they stipulated that no new taxes should be raised without the consent of the people, made known by the assemblies in each district;—yet new

taxes have been levied, and these assemblies have never met. In short, the will of the king is the only law on which the rights and liberties of the people depend. He disposes of their effects by taxes, and of their persons by arbitrary imprisonment. The very attempt to emigrate without leave, is an offence corrigible by fine, confiscation, and even ignominious punishment. The judges appointed and revocable at pleasure, determine the costs of a suit, and as their salaries are very moderate, they do not administer, but sell justice. The prerogative of mercy, the brightest jewel in the crown, is subject to a tax, which has been denominated the *royal emoluments*. As the sentence of a judge, says M. Simond, in civil as well as in criminal cases is sometimes set aside arbitrarily, so are private contracts between individuals, however legal, and testaments made in due form. An individual secretly accused may be taken up and kept in a dungeon for years, even for his whole life without trial. When tried, it is in secret; he is not present at the examination of witnesses, he does not even know who they are; and, finally, the judges decide from the report made by one of them, (the *juge d'instruction*), assisted by the recorder's clerk. There are no instances of an acquitted prisoner being liberated without paying costs.^d As if it were not enough that the nobles in the county of Nice, in Piemont and in Savoy, had recovered with other feudal rights, that of administering justice, the governors of provinces, in the plenitude of their authority, inflict corporal punishment on those under their jurisdiction, and sentence the people to remain hours, nay days, in the stocks. What more can be done at Constantinople?

The towns in the north of Savoy are not important, Towns. Chamberry is more agreeable from its position, than remarkable for its buildings. Saint Jean de Maurienne, a small place although the chief town in the province of Mariana or Maurienne, consists of ill built houses and

^d Travels in Italy.

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OXXXIII.

Mount
Cenis.

dirty streets. The country in the neighbourhood of these two towns is picturesque, fruitful, and well cultivated, lofty mulberry trees, scattered in every direction, indicate that the inhabitants make a good use of their silk worms.

The stranger has hardly crossed the Arque, which descends from the Greek Alps, before he observes the excellent road along Mount Cenis, by which he can now travel in a carriage across mountains, that at no very remote period were ascended by means of chairmen and mules. The *ramasse* is no longer used in descending from the highest point on the road to Lanslebourg; a journey of five miles can no longer be made in seven minutes; the traveller need not commit himself to the skill of a guide, whose feet acted as a helm in directing the light *ramasse* along the snow, and which by one false movement might be precipitated into an abyss. Another and less rapid declivity has been cut, and that part of the journey may be performed without danger.

But the road of Mount Cenis cannot be compared with the road on the Simplon; a passage cut through the rocks, between Bardi and Aosta, is the magnificent work of the dukes of Savoy; farther to the north, at Aosta, may be seen the remains of Roman buildings, and a triumphal arch erected to Augustus. Beyond Mount Rosè, the admiration which was before attracted by the beauties of nature, is concentrated on the noblest monument of human patience and industry. The road along the Simplon surpasses the greatest works of the Romans; it was not enough to burst with gun-powder the chain of the Alps, it was necessary to make a road through these mountains for every sort of carriage. Hannibal and Bernard, the uncle of Charlemagne, had crossed the Alps before Napoleon, but a long period may elapse before any conqueror imitate him in the great undertaking by which Switzerland is for ever united to Italy.

The lake Maggiore forms the limit of the Sardinian possessions, the road which descends from the Simplon, winds by it, and traverses the ancient and fine town of

Novara, situated to the south of Oleggio, a place frequented by strangers for its mineral waters. Vercelli is interesting from its antiquities, one of them, a manuscript gospel of Saint Mark, written in the fourth century, is preserved in the cathedral. The Cimbri were cut to pieces by Marius on the plains near Vercelli.

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Turin or Torino is situated at the extremity of these Turin plains, not far from the junction of the Po and Doira, a small river that has been sometimes confounded with the one that waters the valley of Aosta. Turin is a very ancient capital; it was the principal city of the Taurini, as its name indicates. It consists of two parts, the old and the new, the one resembles any other ancient and Gothic town, the other has all the elegance of modern cities. But its large and straight streets are dismal and deserted, they are only animated in festivals. Two large squares separate the old from the new town, the latter is perhaps cleaner than any other in Italy, an advantage which is secured by a great number of fountains that water and purify the streets in summer, and clear them of snow in winter. In order to effect the latter operation, the reservoir at the gate of Suza is opened for two hours, and a torrent rushes from it that carries away the snow and every sort of filth from the town.

A street, a mile in length, formed, like all the others in the new town, by houses built after the same model, and adorned with porticos, that afford shelter from rain and the heat of the sun, leads to the royal castle. The palace is situated in the centre of a square, and surrounded by a moat; it is a sort of Hermes in architecture, exhibiting on one side a Gothic front, and on the other, the elegance of the Grecian architecture. The staircase that leads to the interior of the building is finer than any in Italy, surpassing those at Caserta and in the *palazza reale* at Naples. The number of churches and chapels at Turin amounts to a hundred and ten; the most admired of any is the church of San. Lorenzo, the interior is covered with black marble, and several chains hanging down from the ceiling,

BOOK formerly sustained lamps and candelabras of massive silver;
CXXXIII. which were taken away by the French; but the same people respected the *saint suaire* or winding sheet of our Saviour, an object of popular superstition. It is supposed to be a true relic, although Genoa possesses another, equally venerated by the populace. The large theatre at Turin was for a long time the finest in Italy; it served as a model for the one at Naples. The university is another building, not inferior in its kind to any at Turin; the entrance to it is formed by a large court encompassed with arcades; and the walls are adorned with basso-relievos and ancient inscriptions.

Other
towns.

Coni, although peopled by seventeen thousand inhabitants, contains little worthy of notice, it is situated on the banks of the Stura, towards the south of Turin. The same may be said of Casal on the Po to the east of Turin, it contains an equal number of inhabitants, but its public buildings are more numerous. The fine road which leads to Genoa, passes through Asti, formerly celebrated in the country for its hundred towers, as Thebes was in ancient times for its hundred gates. But its old walls are now falling into ruins, and its population is rapidly decreasing; although in superficial extent, nearly equal to Turin, it does not contain more than twenty-two thousand souls. The inconsiderable trade of Asti is confined to white and red wines, which are said to be better than any others in Piedmont. Alba Pompeia, at some leagues to the south-west of Asti, was embellished by the father of the great Pompey; it is known too as the birthplace of the emperor Severus. The road from Asti follows the windings of the Tanaro, and leads to Alexandria. When seen at a distance, Alexandria resembles a village in the midst of a plain. Although a gloomy town, consisting of brick houses, it is one of the strongest places in Italy. It owes its origin to the quarrels between the popes and the emperors in the twelfth century; it was founded in honour of Alexander the Third, and bore for a long time the name of *Alessandria della paglia*, because its houses were

at first covered with straw. A road from Alexandria extends to the north-east, and leads to Tortona and Vogliera. BOOK
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The first, formerly a large and populous town, has now only eight thousand inhabitants, the second contains ten thousand, and is adorned with a fine cathedral of Grecian architecture.

The country assumes a new aspect at the division of the roads to Tortona and Genoa, or the entrance into the Apennines; at one place shaded with forests, at another lined with solitary meadows, the habitations of men become gradually more rare, and at last disappear before the stranger reaches the defile of Bochetta. Genoa appears at the base of the mountains, and the Mediterranean is lost in the horizon. It often happens that the Mediterranean is confounded with the mists which cover the country; but in fine weather, its surface, as brilliant as crystal, assumes the azure tint of the sky. Genoa may be seen to the greatest advantage on the side of the sea; it rises in the form of a semicircle more than three thousand six hundred yards in length, and at one extremity, on the point of a rock, are situated two gigantic piers and a lighthouse of stupendous proportions. The town is encompassed in a circuit of eight miles, with a double range of fortifications, that are celebrated from the siege that Massena sustained against the Austrians in 1810, and from the courageous resistance of the inhabitants, who endured for a period of fifty-nine days all the privations of famine.

The interior of the town consists of very steep and narrow streets between lofty palaces; many of them are covered in the middle with a brick causeway two or three feet wide, for the convenience of mules and porters, for carts cannot ascend them. Two streets, Balbi and the New Street, are accessible to carriages; on both sides of the former are the most magnificent palaces in Genoa. The flat roofs are adorned with shrubs and trees, or myrtles, pomegranate, orange, lemon and oleanders twenty-five feet high, rising from ground several feet deep, conveyed to the roofs, and supported on arches;

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fountains play among these artificial groves, and keep up their verdure and shade during the heat of summer. The finest edifices are the palaces belonging to the families of Durazzo, Spinola, Doria, Brignole and Serra, the ancient ducal palace and some churches and convents. Among the latter, the church of St. Mary Lavignano, is a building of elegant architecture, and although the inside of the *Annonziata* is loaded with gilt ornaments, the stranger may regret that its front is still unfinished. The church of San-Cyro is adorned with fresco paintings, and the Gothic cathedral is covered on the inside and outside with marble of different colours. There are besides three well built hospitals, one of them, the *Albergo dei poveri* is a model in its kind; it affords the means of subsistence to fifteen hundred individuals of every age, and the young are instructed in different trades. The theatres in Genoa cannot be compared with others in many parts of Italy. The only public walks are the walls of the port, the alleys on *Acqua Verde*, and the fine bridge of Carignano, which is not less than a hundred feet in height, it rises above houses of six stories, and unites two elevated parts of the town.

Exchange.

The exchange where the noble merchants of Genoa formerly assembled to carry on their mighty trade, has lost much of its activity, although Genoa has been declared a free port; still the appearance of decay is less obvious than at Venice. Genoa was so powerful from its commerce in the time of the Carthaginians, that it excited the jealousy of that people, by whom it was reduced to ashes. Rebuilt by the Romans, it repaired the losses which it sustained at a later period by the invasions of the Huns, the Goths and the Herules, and afterwards by the conquests of the Lombards and Charlemagne. The famous bank of St. George, the earliest in any commercial town, was established at Genoa in the twelfth century. The rival of Venice in the thirteenth century, it possessed Pera, a suburbs of Constantinople. Having become a powerful republic, it preserved longer than Venice, the primitive form of its government; although forced to implore so-

reign protection against civil commotions, the love of independence was always the cause of its glory and success. It was from convenience, not from compulsion, that it ceded Corsica to Lewis the Fifteenth. Under the name of the *Ligurian* republic, it received a constitution from republican France; but under the empire, Genoa and its territory were changed into a department. It is difficult to recal these recollections, and not to regret that at the time so many states claimed and obtained their independence, Genoa was not restored to its ancient freedom.

The lower orders in Genoa are civil and obliging, the nobles, unlike those of Turin, are neither distinguished by powdered wigs, gold-headed canes, and a proportionable degree of pomp and solemnity, nor by that sort of etiquette which prevailed in France before the revolution; on the contrary, they are remarkable for the frankness and simplicity of their manners, advantages which must, without doubt, be attributed to their commercial pursuits. The women wear the *mezzaro*, a long white veil, half over the face, and gracefully thrown round the person; it descends nearly to the feet, but does not conceal light shoes and white silk stockings. All the women in the upper classes have *cavalieri serventi*, a custom considered scandalous in other countries, but so common in Genoa, that it is adopted by many persons who are irreproachable on the score of morals.

The love of the arts, the culture of the mind, and a certain freedom of opinion distinguish the Genoese from the southern Italians. The inhabitants long accustomed to commerce, still excel in some departments of industry. Genoa has its silk, velvet, and gold lace manufactories; its jewels, perfumes, and artificial flowers are so many articles of exportation. As to the products of the soil, the oils of Genoa are more valuable than its wines.

The eastern part of the gulf of Genoa has been long called the river of the morning, (*Riviera del Levante*;) Spezzia, the largest harbour on the eastern coast, contains six thousand inhabitants. Savona on the opposite

BOOK coast, or the *Riviera del Ponente*, is twice as populous, and possesses a considerable trade in potashes and in the produce of its earthen and porcelain works; but its commerce might be much increased, if the harbour, which is now useless, was rebuilt. The port of Nice, situated on the same coast, the capital of a province and a diocess, possesses a finer climate than any town in Italy, the winters are not accompanied with frost, and many strangers, particularly English, are attracted to it by the mildness of its temperature.

Principality of Monaco. The small town of Monaco, at two leagues to the east of Nice, is peopled by eleven hundred inhabitants. It stands on a rock which braves the fury of the billows, and on the site of an ancient temple erected to Hercules Monæcus; its territory, which has been styled a principality since the tenth century, is governed by the family of Grimaldi, under the protection of his Sardinian majesty.

Island of Sardinia. The island of Sardinia, or according to its Greek name, *Sardon*, belonged to the Carthaginians at the period of their first war with the Romans, by whom they were expelled from the island, which became one of the *Roman granaries*; not long afterwards Corsica and Sardinia formed a single province. While governed by the masters of the world, its population was greater than at present; it then contained forty-two towns, but not more than ten which merit the name, can now be enumerated. The Vandals having made themselves masters of Spain and the coasts of Africa, took possession of Sardinia in the seventh century. The Pisans and the Genoese succeeded them in the eleventh; two hundred years afterwards, the popes, who seldom neglected an opportunity of adding to their temporal dominions, endeavoured to unite the island to the territories of the church, and the Pisans were twice constrained to submit. James the Second, king of Arragon, made himself master of Sardinia in the fourteenth century, and it continued under the government of Spain until the

year 1706; when the English took it in the name of the emperor of Germany, who gave it up to the duke of Savoy, and received Sicily in exchange. BOOK
CXXXIII.

The Sardinians remained in a state of barbarism after the middle ages, but comparatively at a late period, and under the paternal government of Savoy, they have been made to participate in the light of knowledge, and in the benefits of civilization. The arts and sciences are now flourishing, and the house of Savoy cannot be ignorant that the present prosperity and improved condition of the inhabitants, are the result of their wise and enlightened measures. The misfortunes of the reigning family have perhaps contributed in producing these good effects; the conquests of the French deprived them of their other possessions, and the progress of improvement was most rapid when the princes resided in the island.

The inhabitants had for a long time little intercourse with the other Italians; they may still be distinguished from them. The Sardinian is strong, lively, and courageous even to rashness, of quick passions, he is ardent in his affections, and violent in his hatred. Fond of the marvellous from his habits or state of civilization, endowed with a vivid imagination, prone to enthusiasm, these qualities account for his devotion to poetry and the fine arts. Character
of the Sar-
dinians.

Cagliari, the capital, stands near the base of a steep hill, on a gulf at the southern extremity of the island; a strong castle built by the Pisans rises above it. The population amounts to twenty-eight thousand inhabitants, it is the residence of the viceroy and the principal authorities. The houses are ill built and the streets are narrow and crooked. The palace of the viceroy is the only building worthy of notice, the others are a cathedral, thirty-eight churches, twenty-one convents, an university, a college for nobles, an exchange and a theatre. Among the useful institutions may be mentioned schools of medicine and mathematics, a library, museums of antiquities and natural history, and different hospitals. The town was founded by the Carthaginians, and was in ancient times Towns.

BOOK a place of great commerce, the products of its territory are
CXXXIII. corn, oil, wine, cotton, and indigo. Sassari, the town next to it in importance, is situated in a fine valley on the north-west of the island, and contains fifteen thousand inhabitants. Oristano, a town near the gulf of the same name, carries on a great trade in tunny, a fish which abounds on the neighbouring coast, and contains six thousand inhabitants. Besa, a small harbour at the embouchure of the Terno, on the same side of the island, possesses an ancient cathedral and several convents; the walls which encompassed the town are now in ruins. It is peopled by five thousand souls. Alghero, on the same coast, carries on a greater trade in corn than any other place in Sardinia. The population amounts to seven thousand inhabitants; its port cannot admit large vessels, but the spacious and fortified harbour of Porto-Conte, at two miles to the east, might contain several fleets.

BOOK CXXXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe Continued.—Italy.—Fourth Section.—Dutchies of Parma, Modena, Massé, Lucca.—Great Dutchy of Tuscany.—Republic of San Marino.

THE country which forms the subject of the present and **BOOK** following chapters, is divided into a greater number of **CXXXIV.** small states than any other part of Italy. Seven independent states occupy a surface of three thousand nine hundred and seventy square leagues, and, without including the Roman territory, they are the most important from the wealth and industry of their inhabitants.

In ancient times these states comprehended Southern **Ancient** Cisalpine Gaul, Etruria, Umbria, Picenum, and Latium. **inhabitants.** The Anamani, a people of uncertain origin, but who were probably Celtic, inhabited almost all the territory in the dutchy of Parma; their limits were the Po on the north, the Trebia on the west, and the Parma on the east. The Lingones to the south of the Po, and the Boii on the northern declivities of the Apenines, a tribe of the same origin as the people that have been mentioned in the account of Bohemia, were settled in the territories of Modena, Bologna, and Ferrara. The western sides of the Apenines in Etruria, were peopled by the Magelli and Ligures, tribes that in their customs resembled the Gauls. On the shores of the Adriatic, the Sennones, a people of the

BOOK CXXXIV. Gauls, inhabited four centuries before the Christian era, the country near the present republic of San Marino. After the Gauls had crossed the Alps, they were joined by these different tribes, they laid siege to Rome, and were defeated by Camillus. The Picentini inhabited the declivities of the Apennines, which form the present territories of Ancona, Macerata and Ascoli; they were Sabines by origin. Their country was called *Picenum* from the great quantity of mineral pitch which it contained. Umbria, situated on the western side of the Apennines, between the Tiber and the Nera, a feeder of the same river, was inhabited by a people sprung from the Gauls. According to Court-de-Gebelin, the Sabines, their neighbours, derived their name from the Celtic word *Sab*, which signifies high or elevated; they occupied the sides and summits of the Apennines. Ancient writers mention the Sabines in the most favourable terms; they were frank, generous and valiant, their women were modest and virtuous; their marriages, says Mentelle, were civil obligations, entered into in the name of the state; a very extraordinary fact, as in ancient times, religious ceremonies were the bases of social contracts. The power of the Sabines is proved in the early history of Rome; the Hernici, the Lucani, the Samnites and Brufii were colonists of the same people. Before their country was conquered by the Romans, their simple and metaphysical worship was exempt from the corruption which characterized polytheism.

The territory between the mouths of the Tiber and the Tolerio or the ancient *Liris*, was called *Latium*, it extended to the lake *Lucrino*. The inhabitants or the *Latini* were the descendants of Pelasgians that migrated from Thessaly, and another people, concerning whose origin so little is known, that they have been termed *Aborigenes*.

When Charlemagne carried his victorious arms into Italy, he made himself master of Parma and Placentia; but it is not proved that he gave them to the holy See, and it is equally uncertain that Parma derives its name from the *parma* or round buckler worn by the *Anamani*.

But whether it was the effect of policy or the influence BOOK
CXXXIV. which light and religion gave the popes over ignorant and superstitious princes, Rome continued long in possession of these two towns. They became republics at a later period; but civil divisions and the quarrels between the Guelfs and Ghibelins were the means of transferring them to the Corregios, the Scaligers, the Viscontis, the Sforzas and the popes. When Julius the Second, a most ambitious pontiff, had formed the great league of kings against France, he made himself be invested in the possession of Parma and Placentia by the emperor Maximilian: Paul the Third made them over in 1547 to his son Lewis Farnese, who was assassinated two years afterwards, but his descendants enjoyed them until Elizabeth Farnese, the heiress of the family, married Philip the Fifth, king of Spain, and brought as her dowry these two duchies into the house of Bourbon. The Infants Don Carlos, Don Philip and his sons governed them in succession, but in 1805 the two duchies were united to the French empire, and formed the department of the Taro. They were made over in 1814 by the Congress at Vienna, to the Archduchess Mary Louisa during her life; the next heirs, for they were nominated, are the Lucchese princes of the house of Bourbon Anjou, and their successors.

The states of Parma consist of the duchy of the same name, and two others, Placentia and Guastalla; they are Position of
the duchy. bounded on the north by the Po, on the east by Modena, on the south and the west by Massa and the Sardinian possessions. Parma, the capital and the largest town in the duchy, is situated on the banks of the Parma, a torrent that is dry in summer. The old walls and bastions form a circuit of four miles, the streets and squares are spacious, but neither the houses nor public buildings are remarkable for their architecture. The cathedral is a Gothic and imposing edifice, the palaces and other churches are simple and destitute of ornaments, but worthy of being visited from the valuable paintings contained in them.

The old Farnese palace, built of brick, resembles a con-

BOOK vent, rather than the residence of a prince. In the same
CXXXIV. edifice are the academy of the fine arts, the library, and the largest theatre in Italy, the greatest work of Vignola, admirable on account of its architecture, and the fine proportion of its parts. The interior is so well arranged that the stage is equally visible from every point in the theatre, and an actor speaking in a low tone of voice is heard at the remotest corner of the house. It may be regretted that so fine an edifice has not been used for more than a century; another theatre of smaller dimensions is situated in a different part of the town. A plain building behind the Farnese palace, is the residence of Mary Louisa; in one of the rooms may be seen the cradle of her son, in others, the toilet and costly furniture, which the town of Paris gave to the wife of Napoleon. Parma has been improved by the same person. Before the year 1822, there was no cemetery in the town, the dead were interred in churches, and the church of *San Girolamo-Decollato* was reserved for criminals. Physicians were aware that the custom had been injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and it was abolished by the reigning princess; a large piece of ground without the walls of the town has been converted into a cemetery; Parma possesses five charitable institutions and an hospital for girls, founded by the archduchess; the management is committed to a director and to five ladies, one of whom must visit it every day.

Placentia. Guastalla, the metropolis of an ancient duchy, contains little worthy of notice. Placentia, like Parma, is encompassed with walls and ditches, but it is perhaps better built. The ducal palace, although a brick building, still serves to proclaim the wealth of the Farnese, and the talent of Vignola, who planned it. Other edifices may attract the notice of strangers; but, like Versailles, Placentia consists of straight, broad, and desert streets, in many places, not unlike roads. The court of the palace is decorated with two equestrian statues, representing princes of the Farnese family. It has been supposed that the town owes its name to its fine situation and salubrious air.

Two centuries before the Christian era, it was one of the principal cities in the Roman republic; but no traces of its antiquity remain; it was devastated in the wars between Otho and Vitellius. It sustained a memorable siege against Totila in the year 545; the inhabitants suffered so much from famine, that they appeased their hunger with human flesh.

The same town has given birth to several distinguished men, to Ferrante Pallavicini, an ecclesiastic of the seventeenth century, not less celebrated, for his writings than his tragical death, in which Rome had some share, to Lorenzo Valla, who contributed in the fifteenth century to restore the Latin language, to its ancient purity in Italy, to Gregory the Tenth, who ordained that at the death of a pope, the cardinals should be confined in conclave until the election of his successor, lastly, to cardinal Alberoni, who has been termed the Richelieu of Spain.

The burgh of Campre-Moldo is the Campo Morto, near which Hannibal defeated the Romans at the battle of the Trebia. The remains of Vellia, a town, that appears to have been destroyed by an earthquake, were discovered in the year 1760; they are covered with stones and earth that rise to the height of more than twenty feet. The great quantity of bones, medals, and other valuable articles which have been from time to time discovered, indicate that the inhabitants, like those in Herculæum, had not time to escape, but were engulfed with their riches. Vellia was the metropolis of thirty towns and burghs, of which the names inscribed on a bronze table, still preserved in Parma, resemble the names of many villages in the neighbourhood.

The commerce of Parma is inconsiderable, it consists of silk, lace, and different liqueurs. Rice and silk are the principal products of the dutchy. Workmen collect annually near the Salzo-Maggiore, at ten leagues to the south of the capital, three hundred thousand hundredweights of salt, which forms nearly two-thirds of the consumption. The petroleum oil, used by the inhabitants, is obtained in great quantities from the same salt springs.

BOOK
CXXXIV.Celebrated
men.Neighbour-
hood of
Placentia.

BOOK The dutchy of Modena, situated between the Lombard-
CXXXIV. Venetian kingdom, the dutchies of Parma, Lucca and the
 states of the church, is about thirty leagues in length and
 fourteen in breadth. The state, after having belonged to
 the emperors, the popes, the Venetians, the dukes of Man-
 tua, Ferrara and other princes, was added in the thirteenth
 century to the possessions of the house of Este, that reign-
 ed at Ferrara. It was united to the Cisalpine republic in
 1796, and formed afterwards a part of the kingdom of
 Italy. But the archduke Francis, who succeeded by right
 of his mother to the ancient dutchy, took possession of it in
 1814.

Town of
Modena.

Modena, an agreeable and well built town, of which the
 streets are formed by arcades, contains no remarkable edi-
 fice except the vast ducal palace, which stands isolated in a
 large square. It gave birth to Gabriel Fallopius, the most
 distinguished anatomist of the sixteenth century, and it has
 contributed to the advancement of science by the labours
 of its scientific society.

Reggio.

Reggio, the ancient Regium, which was ruined by the
 Goths, and rebuilt by Charlemagne, was joined to the do-
 minions of the house of Este, after having been long go-
 verned by its own magistrates. It was formerly the chief
 town in a dutchy, of which the title was restored by Napo-
 leon, and conferred on one of his bravest generals. The for-
 tifications are not more important than those round Mode-
 na; but the town is well built, it contains a great number of
 convents, and carries on a trade in silk. Reggio was the
 birthplace of Ariosto. The country between Modena and
 Reggio, is pleasant and fruitful; the hills in the neigh-
 bourhood are covered with country houses, and vines en-
 twined round fruit trees. The small town of Mirandola,
 in the northern part of the dutchy, was governed by a
 prince, who at an early age was a prodigy of erudition,
 and who afterwards renounced his principality to devote
 himself to the sciences.

Dutchy of
Massa.

The dutchy of Massa does not exceed fifteen square
 leagues in superficial extent; it is bounded by the Medi-

terranean, the Sardinian states, and the dutchies of Modena and Lucca; although a very small district, it is perhaps the finest part of Italy. No valley can be more romantic than that of the *Fiume-Frigido*, a stream descending from mountains, and enlarged by melted snow, forming several water-falls in the higher or narrow part of the plain, shaded by lofty trees, that add to the coolness and freshness of the air even in the midst of summer. But towards its other extremity, the valley becomes broader, and the view from it more extensive; in spring, when the heat of the sun begins to dry the plains, the snow and the verdure of the meadows, when seen from a distance, form long streaks on the sides of the mountains.

The dutchy depended formerly on Modena, but its territory was added to the principality of Lucca and Piombino, which Eliza Bacciocchi, the sister of Napoleon, governed in the time of the empire. It was anew made a dutchy in 1814, and restored to the archduchess Mary Beatrice, after whose death, it reverts to her son, the Duke of Modena.

The small town of Massa is finely situated on a plain at no great distance from the Mediterranean. The ruins of the cathedral serve to recal an unjust act of power, committed by the last princess, whose government has rendered her dear to the people,—still she was not free from the faults to which persons are liable, that rise suddenly from low to high stations. Eliza Bacciocchi thought the cathedral too near the palace; chanting was apt to make her melancholy, and the smell of frankincense made her cough; for these reasons the venerable building was demolished, although the inhabitants were clamorous, and the magistrates remonstrated.

The town of Carrara derives its importance from its exhaustible marble quarries, that have been worked for a period of more than two thousand years. The neighbouring hills are almost wholly composed of marble, their mean height may be about twelve hundred feet, and their extent not less than two leagues. The marble does not form strata; the finest and the whitest sort is united with

BOOK the kind that the inhabitants use in building their houses.
CXXXIV. More than twelve hundred men are employed in working the quarries, and the duty levied on the exports from them, makes up a tenth part of the public revenue.

Duchy of Lucca.

The duchy of Lucca, situated between Massa and the great duchy of Tuscany, was changed into a republic after the death of the countess Matilda in 1115; it continued however more or less subject to the emperors, and Lewis of Bavaria erected it anew into a duchy about the year 1316. Its government was often changed, but it preserved its freedom from the fifteenth century to the period when it was united to the states of Eliza Bacciocchi. It was granted as an indemnity to the ducal family of Parma in 1815, and it is to be afterwards annexed to the great duchy of Tuscany.

Industry.

The Lucchese are the most industrious people in Italy, as the state of their agriculture, their trade in olive oil, their velvet and silk manufactures, sufficiently evince. Probity is always the companion of industry, and the honesty of the Lucchese peasants has been commended by many travellers.

Town of Lucca.

The town of Lucca is watered by the Cerchio; it has its ramparts and palaces, but the ramparts are slight fortifications, and the strong walled palaces with their grated windows might be mistaken for prisons. The bulwarks adorned with lofty trees, form agreeable walks; but the roofs of the houses, terminating in points, the irregular and tortuous streets render Lucca more like a northern than an Italian city. All the churches are too profusely streaked or adorned with different coloured marble. The celebrated springs in the neighbourhood are much frequented, their temperature is about 45° of Reaumur.

Great duchy of Tuscany.

The great duchy of Tuscany forms the most important principality in Italy; it is bounded by the duchies of Lucca, Modena, the states of the church, and the Mediterranean. Although the climate is unwholesome, particularly in the part near the sea, Tuscany is noted for its fruitful soil and romantic scenery. The wines of the same

country are valuable, the red resembles Claret, and the white is more delicate than Sauterne. But the labours of the vine-dresser are sometimes destroyed by winds and inundations, and the burning Sirocco exerts too often its fatal influence.

The Maremma, a territory so called from its vicinity to the sea, is the most unhealthy region in Tuscany, and one not less remarkable for its pestilential humidity, than the other districts for their fertility or the fine and diversified scenery, of which the description has been given by Addison. The Maremma extends along a distance of forty-three leagues to the neighbourhood of Sienna, Pisa and Leghorn. It may be equal in superficial extent to sixteen or seventeen hundred English square miles; the present population does not exceed forty persons for every square mile; but before the country was conquered by the Romans, it was the most populous region in Italy; for in the Maremma were situated the Etruscan towns of *Rosella*, *Saturnia*, *Populonia*, *Cossa*, and *Ancedonia*, in the last place, walls, baths, amphitheatres and other ancient monuments still remain.^a But the country and the towns have been desolated by the depredations of the Romans; and the successive invasions of barbarians. Destitute of inhabitants, the Maremma is covered with wood, and the waters which an industrious population confined in canals, have formed numerous marshes, and their exhalations occasion dangerous diseases. Before the Etrusci or Rhasenæ were settled in the Maremma, the land was probably in the same state as at present, but they surmounted the obstacles arising from the insalubrity of the soil, and the country became flourishing. Colonies of Greeks, perhaps Egyptians, were settled in the Maremma; the emperor Claudius had his country houses and gardens in the same region, which was well adapted for the vine and different fruit trees. Every thing like agricultural wealth has now disappeared, and the stranger observes only the wretched cot-

^a See the Memoir of M. Thaon, sur les moyens propres à encourager la culture la Maremma.

BOOK tages of a few peasants in the places where a numerous and
CXXXIV. industrious population devoted themselves to agriculture. The dukes of Tuscany made several vain attempts to re-people these marshy districts. Como the Third encouraged a colony of Maniotes from the Peloponesus, but in a short time they were destroyed by the effects of the climate; colonists from Lorraine were afterwards invited, and they shared the same fate. Much remains to be done before the land can be rendered useful for agriculture; able men must be consulted on the best method of checking the fatal effects of pestilential exhalations; the soil must be drained by government, and agriculturists must determine the plants best adapted for the climate, or the most likely to repay the husbandman for his outlay and labour.

Tuscany
 erected into
 a dutchy.

Tuscany was conquered by the Goths in the sixth century, and they kept possession of it during sixty years. Alboin, king of the Lombards, having defeated them, erected the country into a dutchy, and made it a fief dependent on his crown. Charlemagne having conquered Lombardy, appointed counts, who were afterwards entitled marquises, over the dutchy; they were the vassals of the empire.

The cities in Tuscany retained their prosperity for a long time; they were governed by magistrates appointed by the citizens. Rome, in order to weaken the imperial power, induced these towns to enter into a league similar to the one formed by the towns of Lombardy. The execution of the plan was reserved for Innocent the Third, *and the honour and aggrandisement of the apostolic see*, became the watchword of citizens, who were long faithful to their engagements.^b Pisa, Sienna, and Florence were the most important of these republics, and their chiefs were styled *Gonfalonieri*. They had amassed considerable wealth by commerce in the fourteenth century, but as if states that acquire power by usurpation, were destined to submit to usurpers in their turn, Florence, having taken pos-

^b Muratori dissertatio 48, tome iv. p. 320.

session of Pisa unjustly, was punished in becoming the domain of the Medicis, a family that by fortunate speculations had become the most wealthy in the town. Alexander of Medicis was made duke of Florence in 1531 by the interest of Charles the Fifth, and his son obtained from the pope and the emperor, the title of great duke. After the extinction of the Medicis in 1737, the dutchy passed to the duke of Lorraine, who ceded that province to France. The same duke was raised to the imperial throne, and his son was appointed his successor in Italy. But the house of Lorraine was deprived of the dutchy by Napoleon, who gave it to his sister Eliza.^c Lastly, the archduke was restored to his dominions in 1814, and Elba was added to his states in the following year.

The two principal streams in Tuscany are the Ombrone Rivers. and the Arno, they throw themselves into the sea. The Arno, enlarged by several streams, may be considered a river, it made formerly a long circuit, but its course has been shortened and confined by dikes, and the lands which it inundated, are now cultivated. The valley of the Arno, in the Apenines, from which the river takes its source, was in the time of the Florentine and Pisan republics, embellished with the country houses of wealthy merchants; in the same valley, at present peopled by workmen, are manufactured the linen stuffs that form an important article in the commerce of Tuscany, and also the straw hats well known as Leghorn hats, from the name of the port whence they are shipped to all parts of the world.

The Arno crosses Pisa at the distance of a league Pisa. from its embouchure. The town is one of the most ancient in Italy; the streets are broad and well paved, the cathedral, a Gothic edifice, is built of marble; three bronze gates adorn the portal, and seventy-four columns, sixty-two of which are of oriental granite, support the roof. The interior, it must be admitted, is rather gloomy; an old chandelier of rusty metal hangs from the vault. Galileo

^c Decrets des 2 et 6 Mars, 1809.

BOOK CXXXIV. happened to be in the church, when a workman carrying a ladder, struck the chandelier by accident, and its swinging motion suggested to the philosopher the first notion of the pendulum. The first pendulum clock constructed by Galileo, is still preserved at Pisa. The *Battisery* is a church reserved for baptisms; its Gothic vault is so sonorous as to produce several effects which guides never fail to indicate to strangers; if the floor or pavement be struck, it resounds for a long time; if a person speaks in a loud voice, an echo repeats several syllables, or if he speaks in a whisper in any corner of the church, he is distinctly heard at the opposite extremity.

Sloping
tower.

The *Campanile Torto*, or sloping tower, has been considered the most singular edifice in Pisa. Beautiful columns of white marble rise from its base, and support six tiers of arcades, surmounted by a tower of smaller diameter than the base. The height of the tower is not less than a hundred and ninety feet, and the inclination from the ground to the summit, about fifteen. At the sight of so singular a monument, it is difficult to decide whether it was the original intention of the architect to construct it with so great an inclination, or whether, as many professional persons suppose, it may be attributed to the sinking of the ground.

Campo
Santo.

Not far from the sloping tower, the cicerone show with veneration the Campo Santo, a rectangular court of vast size, surrounded with a sort of Gothic arcade, the walls of which are painted in fresco. It was constructed in the thirteenth century for the purpose of securing an enormous heap of earth, brought from the Holy Land by the Pisans after the third crusade; it is said to be nine feet deep, and as the extent of the Campo Santo is rather more than two English acres, it must have required almost fifty ships of three hundred tons burthen, and perhaps three times that number of such vessels as were then in use, to transport so great a mass of sanctified mould.^d It is believed that the bodies which are buried in it, are very speedily consumed;

^d M. Simond's Travels in Italy.

the time formerly required, was said to be less than twenty-^{BOOK} four hours, the Pisans themselves admit that it takes at ^{CXXXIV.} present more than two days; their calculations are in all probability incorrect, such miracles must be confirmed by undoubted experiments.

Florence or Firenze rises on the banks of the Arno, at ^{Florence.} a greater distance from its mouth than Pisa. Four bridges are built across the river, and these communicate with four quarters, two leagues in circumference, and three thousand yards in length. Florence, if it may be so said, was the cradle of the arts at the time of their regeneration, and the numerous objects of art still contained in the same place render it one of the most remarkable cities in Europe. Michael Angelo thought it impossible for an architect to raise so fine a building as the cathedral; an isolated tower at no great distance serves as its belfry, and Charles the Fifth was so much pleased with its finished elegance, that he said it ought to be kept in a glass-case, in order to defend it from the wind and atmosphere. The three bronze gates of the Baptisery are worked with so much art, that Michael Angelo thought them worthy of being placed at the entrance into paradise. The royal chapel or the tomb of the Medicis, begun about three centuries ago, and likely to be never finished, is one of the most curious works in Italy; jaspers, lapis lazuli, granite, alabaster, and the rarest marbles are collected in such profusion, that it resembles not so much a sepulchral monument as a magnificent mosaic. The church of Santa Croce, a brick building originally intended to be covered with marble, contains the ashes of illustrious men. The tomb of Michael Angelo supports his own bust by himself, that of Vittorio Alfieri was adorned by Canova; there too are the remains of Galileo, Aretino, and Macchiavelli, who is represented weighing a sword and a roll of paper in a balance.

The *Poggio Imperiale*, the palaces *Ricardi*, *Strozzi*, ^{Ducal pa-} *Corsini* and *Germi*, are worthy of being described, but it ^{lacc.} would be necessary to enter into details incompatible with our limits. The ducal palace, called *Palazzo Pitti* from

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the name of the person who built it in the year 1460, exhibits a character of solidity which promises ages of duration. It consists of three lofty stories divided into nine hundred apartments. Many of them, carved and gilt all over, are furnished in the most costly manner. In one suite are contained a valuable collection of paintings and a number of Florentine mosaic tables, differing from the other mosaics in Italy, by the large pieces of which they are formed. The labour required in these works is hardly credible, fifteen, twenty, and twenty-five years have been spent by a set of artists working together to finish a single table.* The famous Venus of Canova decorates one of the halls, and the palace communicates with the Florentine gallery by a passage six hundred paces in length. A stranger may there judge of the past magnificence of the Medicis; he may admire the Venus that bears their name, other ancient statues which were long the principal ornaments in the Louvre, and several *chefs d'œuvre* by the greatest Italian painters. The Boboli gardens adjoining the palace are in the taste transmitted to us by the ancients; they are praised by the Italians, who admire rectangular walks flanked with cut trees, fashioned into a wall, or arched overhead. The squares and streets in Florence are adorned with an hundred and fifty statues. Two obelisks rise on the *piazza* of *Santa Maria Novella*, which serves as a course for chariot races, similar to those of the ancients; horse races are also an amusement, the race ground is more than two miles in length. The quays in Florence are much finer than any in Paris.

Towns.

Prato rises to the north of Florence towards the Apennines, on the banks of the Bisenzio, it is a place of some trade, the inhabitants manufacture copper utensils, and its fairs are more frequented than any in Tuscany. Pistoia is situated at the base of the Apennines; there are few towns in Italy in which the streets are so large or so

straight; it formed at one time a republic, it carries on a trade at present in fowling-pieces, silk and straw hats. BOOK
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At a league to the east of the canal, that unites the *Arno* and the *Chiana*, is situated *Arezzo*, an ancient town, of which the Latin name was derived, according to some, from *Aretia*, a surname of Vesta, and according to others, from the eastern word *Aretz*, which corresponds with its situation, and signifies *an agreeable place on the waters*. In the time of the Etruscans it was known for its pottery, its wine, and a fountain from which bracles were delivered. It was the birthplace of many great men, of Mæcenas, of the martyr Saint Lorenzo, of Petrarch, Guy or Guido, who invented or discovered anew the notes of music, of Pope Julius the Second, and Concini, marshal of Ancre.

On the Apennines and at eight leagues to the north of the town, stands the famous convent of the Camaldolites, founded in the beginning of the eleventh century. Cortona on the south-east of Arezzo, rises on the declivity of a hill, which overlooks a fine plain, watered by the Perugian lake. It is supposed to occupy the site of Corythum, a town mentioned by Virgil, but which did not exist in his time.^f Walls constructed of very large stones that are not united by any cement, may still be seen near Cortona, they were raised by the most ancient inhabitants of Etruria. Although a very small place, it has possessed since the year 1726, an Etruscan academy, which has been of much use by its researches.

“ Fallen from its former rank, as a republican city containing a hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants, to that of a provincial town having only fifteen or twenty thousand, and the melancholy title of capital of the *Maremma*, Sienna exhibits no signs of decay, but on the contrary every appearance of active industry. Scarcely any beggars, the streets well paved and very clean; the shops numerous and well supplied; the people well dressed and the women re-

^f B. III. v. 170.

BOOK CXXXIV. remarkably good looking and graceful even in the ludicrous attitude of riding astride on donkeys, which seems the custom both with ladies and market women, all showing their garters at the top of a well formed leg, and snow white stockings. The cathedral is a nondescript edifice, built in the thirteenth century, when the Gothic style of architecture prevailing beyond the Alps, was with difficulty making its way in Italy. It is therefore but half Gothic, half Grecian; slender shafts with Corinthian tops and round arches. The most remarkable feature of this singular edifice, is the party coloured marble on the outside; broad stripes of dingy brown and dirty white alternately, like the zebra's skin. Nothing can possibly be in worse taste; but the inlaid pavement done in 1460, is on the contrary very beautiful.*

Piazza del Campo.

There is only one square at Sienna, the Piazza del Campo; it is hollowed in the form of a basin, adorned with a fine fountain, and lined with palaces in the Gothic style. Saint Catherine, the tutelal saint of the town, is as celebrated in the country, as Saint Genevieve was in Paris. Born in the fourteenth century, the daughter of a poor dyer, she acted an important part in the ecclesiastical affairs of Italy. She was sent to Gregory, the Eleventh to persuade him to quit Avignon, and to restore the papal throne at Rome. It is said that a society was established in 1464 in the house inhabited by the saint; it endowed every year the daughters of poor artisans, who walked in procession on her anniversary, and some of them on these occasions made choice of their husbands. A number of young men stood near the procession, and each gave a handkerchief to her whom he loved; if she refused, she kissed the handkerchief, and returned it; if she consented, she tied a knote on it, and then presented it to her bridegroom.

A Roman colony was sent to Sienna by Augustus, and it was then called *Colonia Senensis*. The Italian language is spoken in greater purity in the same place, than in any

* Simond's Travels in Italy and Sicily, page 570.

other town in Tuscany ; the pronounciation or accent of the Siennese is also the most agreeable. It possesses several academies and an university ; the inhabitants are gay, lively and well informed ; it has produced several celebrated men, among others, seven popes and Socinus, the chief of the unitarians, who reject the mystery of the trinity, and believe Christ, although participating in the divine nature, to be inferior to God. BOOK
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The road from Sienna to Leghorn crosses the Etruscan town of *Volterra*, the name of which remains the same, but the population, which amounted formerly to a hundred thousand, is now reduced to four thousand inhabitants ; once one of the twelve principal cities in Etruria, but now almost deserted, it leads to the populous town of Leghorn,—a small burgh in 1120, but at present peopled by seventy-five thousand individuals, including the inhabitants of its three suburbs, which contain more than thirty thousand. The streets are broad and well built, the port is frequented by merchant ships, and the town is a place of extensive trade. The principal edifices are the store-houses, the arsenals and three lazarettos. The only monument worthy of notice, is the marble statue of Duke Ferdinand the First, in the attitude of a conqueror with four bronze slaves at his feet. The harbour is six hundred yards in length, and seventy-two in breadth ; hulks are kept for the purpose of taking away the pebbles and alluvial deposits, which are carried by the sea. A great many Jewish and Greek merchants are settled in the town ; some of the exports are soap, alabaster and coral.

Ophthalmia is a disease peculiar to its soil ; it has been erroneously attributed to the sandy dust driven by the winds, and to the humidity of the quarter called *New Venice* on account of its numerous canals ; it appears on the contrary to arise from the comparative coldness of the night air during the summer season.

Piombino, a sea port to the south of Leghorn, is situated at a short distance from the ancient Etruscan town of Po-

BOOK CXXXIV. pulonia, which was destroyed in the ninth century by the patrician Niceus, but some of its remains, and walls united without cement, are still extant. Near these walls are extensive ruins, which, according to some were originally an amphitheatre, while others suppose them to have been part of the ancient Vetulonia. Piombino stands on a rock, and gives its name to the neighbouring gulf. The air and climate are unwholesome, and the population, which peace and commerce have not augmented, does not exceed two thousand inhabitants.

Island of Elba.

The island of Elba, not more than three leagues from the continent, may be distinctly seen from Piombino. It was subject in the thirteenth century to the Pisans; it was afterwards taken by the Genoese, and remained at different times in the possession of the dukes of Milan, and the king of the Two Sicilies, who ceded it to France in 1801. The island contains fourteen thousand inhabitants; it was the residence of Napoleon, to whom it was given in sovereignty by the treaty of 1814, and who by quitting it on the 25th of February 1815, in order to return to France, brought on that kingdom a second foreign invasion more disastrous than the first.

Porto-Ferrajo, a fortified town with a harbour on the northern coast, and containing five thousand inhabitants, is the capital of the island. Porto-Longone, a small town of fifteen hundred inhabitants, is defended by a fortress built on a rock; its harbour has been called the Marina.

Condition of Tuscany.

Tuscany owes to Duke Leopold the prosperity which it still enjoys; that prince had corrected many abuses before the year 1772; the convents were not nearly so numerous as in other Italian states, indeed the most useless orders were abolished, the Inquisition was rendered merely nominal, the punishment of death was almost unknown, for it was only once inflicted during his reign; the system of taxes was improved, and they were regularly paid; industry and commerce were freed from their shackles, and education was encouraged among the lower orders, a class of people that are kept in Italy in the most abject ignorance.

These improvements, which are honourable to the greatest prince, that ever governed Tuscany, prepared the people to adopt without reluctance the French laws; but during the late changes, part of the old system was amalgamated with the Napoleon code; the lands of religious communities were restored; new abuses were introduced, and the Tuscans, whose mildness is proverbial,—a people very easily satisfied,—have ventured to complain. BOOK
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During the fifth century, a Dalmatian hewer of stones, whose piety induced him to preach Christianity, built a hermitage on the coast of the Adriatic, near the summit of Mount Titan. The hermitage was called Marino, his religious zeal made him add the title of saint, and after his death, he received the honours of canonization. A town rose in the year 600, near the hermitage of San Marino, from which it took its name. It was formed into a republic, fortifications were erected, and two or three small fortresses in the neighbourhood, were in course of time acquired. The popes took possession of the republic in 1739, a very insignificant conquest, but the emperor of Germany restored it to freedom. Enclosed by the states of the Holy See, it is at present under the protection of the pope. The small republic, which adopted the following protocol in writing to Venice, *Alla nostra carissima sorella, la Serenissima repubblica di Venetia*, occupies a surface of five square leagues; the town of San Marino, and two villages are contained in it. The wines or the products of its territory supply its commerce. The sovereignty is vested in a council of three hundred ancients, and the executive power in a senate composed of twenty patricians, twenty burgesses, and twenty peasants, whose presidents are two *gonfalonieri*, elected every three months. These two magistrates have a guard of thirty men, but if the freedom of the republic is endangered, every citizen becomes a soldier.

BOOK CXXXV.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Fifth Section.—
Description of the States of the Church.*

BOOK CXXXV. Temporal and scriptural power of the popes. ALTHOUGH the subjects of the different princes in Italy, resemble each other in several particulars, we think it right to describe in a separate chapter, a state which, in a political point of view, differs from every other in Europe. It is not uninteresting to contemplate an elective monarchy having for its domain the earth, in which it only occupies a point, and for its empire the heavens, from which it looks at kings as its inferiors. It is not easy to define or even to characterize such a power as the throne of Rome, which passes for the most ancient in Europe. The papal tiara is adorned with a triple crown, he who fills the throne, and wears the diadem, is called the successor of St. Peter; in general, he may be as much entitled from his advanced age, as from his rank as prince of the church, to the homage and veneration of his people, but he claims the homage of kings and all the powers on the earth. Is it as the successor of St. Peter that he is clothed in purple and fine linen, that he wears the emblems of royalty, that he has his soldiers, that justice is administered in his name, that he prevents crimes by punishing the guilty? The two powers with which he is vested, are incompatible with each other; can the *servant of the servants of God* appear without inconsistency in royal pomp? Is it not un-

necessary that he should be the weakest prince in Christendom, in order, as the vicar of our Saviour, to be greater BOOK
CXXXV. than the kings of the earth? Such are the reflections which naturally occur in considering the pope as uniting the sovereign power with his dignity as chief of the church. But what appears an anomaly at a time when governments and powers are defined, might, in the early ages of Christianity, have resulted from the course of events, from the force of circumstances.

The supremacy of the apostolic see at Rome over the other churches, dates from a very remote period. Ireneus, ^{Origin of their temporal power.} bishop of Lyons, in the second century, and Saint Cyprian, bishop of Carthage in the following century, admitted it as an incontestable point, without, however, deducing all the consequences which were afterwards derived. Before the period that Italy was invaded by Pepin, the popes had no political power, no temporal possessions. The pretended donation made by Constantine to Silvester the First, has been considered fabulous by the most able critics and by the Ultramontanes themselves. * Pepin, mayor of the palace of Childeric the Third, wishing to maintain his usurpation by the consent of the nation, and the authority of the church, consulted solemnly pope Zachariah, who answered, like the oracles of old, that the sovereignty belonged to him who exercised the royal power. Such an answer satisfied the scruples of the minister, his master was confined in a convent, and he himself was proclaimed king by the French. But when Pepin had expelled the Lombards from the exarchate of Ravenna, he gave it from a motive of gratitude or policy to pope Stephen the Second. The donation was afterwards ratified by Charlemagne, who added to it Perugino and the duchy of Spoleto. The bishops of Rome being raised to the rank of temporal princes, were no longer destitute of ambition; it was not, however, before their spiritual power reached its height,

* See *Histoire de l'Eglise et de l'empire* by J. Lesueur, tom. ii.—*Histoire de la délivrance de l'Eglise*, by Father Morin.—*Dictionnaire de Moreri*, Article Sylvestre.

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that they extended their dominions. The emperor Henry the Third gave them the dutchy of Benevento in the eleventh century; Matilda, countess of Tuscany, bequeathed to the Holy See, the territories of Bolsena, Bagnarea, Monte-Fiascone, Viterbo, Civita Castellana, Corneto, Civita-Vecchia and Bracciano, possessions which form the *Patrimony of St. Peter*. Rome, then merely the residence of the popes, belonged to the empire, it was divided by republican factions. Men possessing qualities that were ill adapted to the spirit of the age, attempted vainly to establish a free government. Rome and the contiguous province of Sabina were not included in the domains of the Holy See, until the end of the fourteenth century. Lewis Gonzaga, general of Clement the Seventh, united the marches of Ancona to the states of the church in 1532. The dutchy of Urbino, which belonged to the family of Julius the Second, became the possession of the popes in 1626. The latest conquests the popes made, were Orvieto, the dutchy of Castro, and the county of Romiglione. The two last principalities were the inheritance of pope Paul the Third, and he left them to his son Farnese, who became duke of Parma and Placentia; but one of his descendants mortgaged them at the Mount of Piety in Rome, for a sum which he was unable to pay, and Innocent the Eleventh took possession of them.

Late events.

The part which the pope took, as a temporal prince of the church, in the European coalitions against France, was attended with disastrous consequences; it is by no means improbable, that if Napoleon had retained his power, the popes might have been reduced to their ancient condition under the eastern empire. The invasion of the French into Lombardy and the states of the church, forced Pius the Sixth to conclude a treaty on the nineteenth of June 1796. It was stipulated that he should cede to France a certain number of statues, vases, pictures, and five hundred manuscripts chosen by commissaries of the republic, that he should pay a contribution of L.800,000, grant a free passage to French troops, open his ports to

French vessels, and shut them against the ships of every state at war with the French republic. The treaty was soon broken by the pope himself; fortune seemed to declare against France, and Pius the Sixth took possession of Ferrara in the following year. A letter intercepted by Buonaparte proved that his holiness was treating with the emperor of Germany; but at the approach of the conqueror, new conditions were proposed by the Holy See. The sum of thirty-six millions of franks or L.1,500,000 was exacted by the French generalissimo, and the other terms of the former treaty were anew concluded. But the assassination of the French general Duphot, at Rome, in the course of the same year, furnished the Directory with a pretext for overturning the Papal government. General Berthier received orders to march against Rome, and the states of the Holy See were transformed into a republic. When the French left Italy, the ephemeral republic fell of its own accord. The Roman states, in consequence of new political combinations, were united to the crown of Italy in 1808; Rome and Paris were then fixed as places of residence for the pope. A new revolution was the result of the events in 1814, and Pius the Seventh recovered the ancient possessions of the church.

The Roman states are bounded by the Adriatic Sea on the east, by the Lombard Venetian kingdom on the north, by the dutchies of Tuscany and Modena on the south-west, and by the kingdom of Naples on the south. Their extent in one direction exceeds ninety-five leagues, and twenty-five in the other; their surface may be equal to two thousand two hundred and forty square leagues. Ancient denominations, such as dutchies, counties and others which have been already mentioned, were abolished; the country is now divided into three districts and seventeen *legations*. The example of the French system was the means of occasioning reforms in the laws, in the administration of justice, and in the distribution of taxes; much, however, still remains to be done, and it is to be

BOOK
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BOOK feared that the popes may be always unable to establish
CXXXV. within their dominions, the moral improvement, the love of industry, and other good qualities of which the Roman people are perhaps susceptible under a different government. To form an idea of the manners and government of the people in the Roman states, one must visit the capital, not the minor towns.

Rome. The ordinary method of life at Rome, may be termed a long lent, so much attention do all the inhabitants pay to the exterior duties of religion. That large city, which might contain three times more than its present population, has a sombre appearance, rendered more striking by large squares, spacious and desert streets, numerous monks or priests, and the majestic ruins which are seen at every step. The very market places are almost as much deserted on market days as the rest of the town. But the stillness is changed into noisy mirth at the time of Carnival; Rome is no longer the same city, all ranks are then confounded, the churches are deserted, and the streets can hardly contain the inhabitants, all of whom leave their
Moccoletti. houses, and join in the joyous throng. On these days of folly are seen young abbots, grave magistrates, even prelates covered with masks, in quest of pleasure, which may be easily found, for both sexes are persuaded that a few moments of error are fully expiated by the penitence and holy privations of lent. Tumultuous crowds assemble on the Corso, which is on these occasions lined with two files of carriages; pieces of tapestry and other ornaments are suspended from every window; *confetti* or small fragments of puzzolana, dipt in lime water to imitate sugar plums, are thrown against the foot passengers and the equipages, followed by the shouts and applause of a multitude in masks of every colour.

**Horse
races.**

At a given signal,—the report of a cannon, the middle and the greater part of the Corso are cleared; horses without riders are seen in full gallop,—tinsel glittering about their mapes and tails,—ribbons with burning matches, streaming in the wind; sparks flying from their back, sides

and every part of their body ; thus galled and tormented, the frightened animals run at full speed. BOOK
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The follies of the carnival, which may be compared to the *lupercalia* of the ancient Romans, are accompanied with other diversions on the night of Shrove Tuesday ; men, women and children walk about the streets with lighted tapers in their hands, and pursue each other in order to extinguish them. Every equipage must also be illuminated, otherwise it might be broken by the populace. The same customs were observed in ancient Rome during the festival of Ceres seeking for her daughter Proserpine.

It might be naturally imagined that the police are care- Police. less or useless in a capital, where government, instead of punishing, negotiates with bandits ; it must be admitted, however, that there are few towns where the police are more efficient or better regulated than at Rome ; no disturbances on the streets, none of the petty larcenies so common in great towns ; it seldom or never happens that handkerchiefs and watches are stolen. It cannot be denied that stilettos are sometimes used, but it is from jealousy, not from avarice or desire of gain. The streets of Rome are not sullied by the degraded beings, tolerated in other towns as a necessary leprosy, and whose sight serves to tempt the wicked, and to offend the virtuous. Public women are banished without any scruple, or at all events they can never be distinguished by indecent effrontery. It may be mentioned to the honour of the papal government, that it has done much to suppress licentiousness and immorality by encouraging marriages. Marriage licences, says an author, are granted with as much facility as passports, and as soon as these licences are presented, the curates must read the marriage ceremony, and pronounce the nuptial benediction. He who seduces a young woman, is obliged to marry her, or to pass five years of his life at the galleys.

The church condemns usury, but it permits the car- Monopolies. dinals to enjoy the most unjust monopolies. They only are permitted to sell the necessities of life,—oil, gro-

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ceries, corn, flour and bread. The grocers and bakers are merely agents, or if any wish to exercise their industry on their own account, they are exposed to vexatious oppression. Besides, government regulates the price of bread for the nominal and ostensible reason that the people may not pay too dear for it, but if any baker attempts to sell it under the regulated price, he may be liable to a severe penalty. Most governments are now aware of the bad effects of lotteries; at Rome, however, that iniquitous tax is not only levied on an ignorant and wretched people, but sanctioned by the ministers of religion, for the tickets are drawn in the presence of clergymen, bishops and cardinals; children turn the wheel, but before they do so, they make the sign of the cross. Although lotteries are permitted by the church, the same church prohibits games of chance.

At Paris, *gensdarmes* guard the theatres, and are stationed in the public places during festivals; at Rome, government goes further; while the follies of the Carnival last, and while the theatres are opened, an executioner walks gravely near his *cavaletto*, an instrument of punishment, destined for those whose turbulent mirth passes the prescribed rules on festive days, or for the critics who venture to condemn or interrupt a theatrical representation. The *cavaletto* consists of two boards joined to each other, and forming two inclined planes; it is supported on four wooden feet, and the two in front are higher than the others. Delinquents are placed horizontally, and bound to it, so as to prevent their escape, while the executioner inflicts a certain number of lashes. Vintners must submit to the same punishment, if animal food, or any dishes that are not permitted, appear on their tables during Lent.

Strappado. The strappado is an instrument of punishment for greater offences, the hands of the criminal are tied behind his back, he is raised into the air by means of a rope, and allowed to fall suddenly to the ground.

Punishment of death. The assassin is punished by death, but not until he has

remained several days in a dungeon,—the victim of suspense, and ignorant of his sentence; he is then compelled to listen to the exhortations of a priest, to confess and to communicate. Three days after these ceremonies have taken place, the criminal may be executed; but if he refuses the consolations of religion, he is beset by all the monks and priests belonging to the different congregations, until he confess, and if he persists in his refusal, he cannot be punished without an order from the pope. The torture has been abolished, and the Italian or national language substituted for the Latin in the civil and ecclesiastical courts, during the pontificate of Leo the Twelfth.

The government of the Roman states, consists of cardinals who fill certain offices, and laymen to whom different places in the magistracy and army are committed. One cardinal performs the duties of *Camerlingo*, or minister of finance; he presides in the Apostolic chamber,—the council entrusted with the revenue of the state. Another or the secretary of state corresponds with nuncios and legates; his office is similar to that of minister for foreign affairs in other governments. The *Ditario* is entrusted with the nomination to vacant benefices, with dispensations and annats. The vicar, besides his episcopal functions, may be considered in Rome, minister of the police; he watches over the inhabitants, punishes transgressors, and enforces the laws against the Jews. The office of the chancellor is sufficiently indicated by its title. The auditor administers justice, decides intricate lawsuits, and examines those that are appointed to diocesses. The secretary of accounts manages whatever appertains to the public expenditure. Different assemblies of cardinals are called consistories or congregations; the members of consistories deliberate concerning the nomination of nuncios, legates and bishops. The members of congregations pass sentence on murderers, who claim the right of asylum or impunity after having taken refuge in a church; they examine the complaints of the people against their governors, the claims of those who solicit titles of nobility, and other questions of a like

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nature. The congregation of rites regulates the ceremonies of the church, and confers after the usual forms the honours of canonization. The chief of these congregations is the Inquisition or *Santo-Offizio*, which the *Index* or a council of censors assist. A number of cardinals form the *Segnatura di Giustizia*, a court that reviews the decisions of inferior judges. The pope presides in the *Segnatura di Grazia*, his holiness and several cardinals examine the petitions of supplicants, and the cases in which the royal prerogative of mercy may be extended with advantage. The Rota, a tribunal composed of lay judges, takes cognisance of civil cases in the first instance; the administration of justice, and criminal cases fall within the department of the governor of Rome. Two *Consulta* or courts of appeal are established in the Roman states, the one in the capital, the other at Bologna. The senator and his four lieutenants form also another lay tribunal, and the conservatori are magistrates entrusted with whatever concerns the interests of the town; they regulate the distribution of the taxes in the chief town of every district.

Religion.

Superstition prevails not only at Rome but in all the states of the Church. The inhabitants observe scrupulously all the ceremonies of religion, omitting nothing connected with form or etiquette, although apparently destitute of true devotion. The confession is a practice which all follow, more from custom than Christian humility, rather to lull the conscience than to correct vice. A lady meets her lover in a church, they may be alone, and it often happens that the churches are deserted, but she never speaks or even looks at him, until he has counted all the beads in his chaplet. The people kneel and receive the benedictions of the pope; it is not at Rome, however, that the chief of the church is thought to participate in the divine power; what he gains in temporal, he loses in spiritual authority.

**Certificates
of commun-
ion.**

As soon as Easter is over, the curates demand from their parishioners certificates of communion, and if any do not present them, their names are added to the lists of the excommunicated. Although the subjects of the papal go-

vernment must observe the ceremonies of devotion, strangers enjoy the utmost freedom; no processes are raised BOOK
CXXXV. against foreigners, who do not deck their houses with tapestry on *Corpus Christi* day, and it is not necessary that they should take off their hats, if they see a cross or the viaticum on the streets. Lastly, whatever a man's religious belief may be, he may be assured of having his body transported to the church after death, and provided payment be made, of being interred with all the honours and pomp used by the Romish communion.

It is needless to make any remarks on the *sigisbei* or *Sigisbei cavalieri serventi*, they are as common in Rome as in the other large towns; during the residence of the French, these lovers were rendered ridiculous, and intrigues were substituted for the contracts which good natured husbands made with the gentlemen that their ladies loved. Foreigners who have lately returned from Rome, admit that the ancient custom is again becoming fashionable, a natural consequence in a country where the beneficial effects of education are unknown, where it does not tend to improve the morals.

A government wholly pacific like that of Rome, might Arts and
Sciences. console itself for its political nullity, by encouraging and protecting letters, sciences and arts, but an intellectual deadness seems to pervade the Roman states. The sciences are less cultivated than in the rest of Italy, and the town which contains inexhaustible treasures for the archaologist, possesses no antiquarian worthy of being compared with many in Germany or France. The literary *academias* in Rome are more obscure than other societies of the same sort in the French provinces. The stage cannot flourish in a town where the tragedies of Alfieri are not permitted to be acted, where the theatres are only open a few days before and after Carnival, and although prelates appear at theatrical representations, it would be much better to prohibit such amusements, than to sanction a criminal mutilation in the holy city, by substituting *castrùti* for singing women. No name worthy the age of Italian paint-

BOOK ing exists at present in the Roman school, and were it not
CXXXV. for the ancient *chefs-d'œuvres* in which Rome abounds,
 the French academy of the fine arts might as well be es-
 tablished in any other town. Mosaic painting is the only
 art in which the Romans excel.

Education. The people in the upper classes are as indolent and ill
 informed as the present Venetian nobles; the reading of
 the young people is mostly confined to the romances of
 Voltaire, and the girls, in order to make up for the time
 lost in a convent, read frivolous and dangerous works.
 The lower orders in the town can read and write, but such
 knowledge is by no means common in the rural districts.
 Enough has been already said concerning the manners
 and customs of the inhabitants in the capital of the Roman
 states, some remarks may now be made on the most re-
 markable ancient and modern monuments that are con-
 tained in the same place. Rome stands in the middle of a
 large plain, which extends from the Apennines to the sea;
 that plain was formerly fertile, it is now comparatively
 sterile. He who enters the town, can hardly believe him-
 self in the former capital of the Roman empire, so different
 is papal from imperial Rome, of which some scattered mo-
 numents are still remaining, notwithstanding the ravages of
 time, barbarians and Christians, attest the past existence.
 The modern soil is much higher than the ancient, the
 Tarpeian rock does not exceed at present twenty-five
 or thirty feet in height, and the pavement of a small church,
 built at the base of the Palatine hill, is exactly on a level
 with the dome of an ancient temple, erected on the spot
 where Romulus and Remus were supposed to have been
 suckled by a wolf. It was necessary to remove the soil to
 the depth of twenty feet, in order to discover the base
 of Trajan's pillar. More than half the pedestal of the
 triumphal arch of Constantine was covered with earth,
 which was also removed before a correct judgment
 be formed of a monument that has suffered little from
 the effects of time; and although raised in a period
 when art was on the decline, is nevertheless most in-

teresting to the antiquary. The fine Egyptian obelisk, loaded with hieroglyphics, and cut by order of Ramses, thirteen centuries before the Christian era, was covered with sixteen feet of earth amidst the ruins of the great circus, before it was transported, in the time of Sixtus the Fifth, to the square of St. John of Lateran. The soil reached to more than half the height of the principal gate in the arch of Septimius Severus. Many monuments that still remain of ancient Rome, were cleared by the French government, which did more in a few years than most of the popes, to restore them to the admiration of modern artists.

The Pantheon, a temple erected by Agrippa to all the gods, is perhaps the finest monument of ancient Rome, and certainly the one in the best state of preservation. The round arch is equal in height to its diameter, as if the architect had wished to imitate the rotundity of the celestial sphere. The interior of the edifice is a hundred and thirty-seven feet in diameter, and the light passes into it by an opening eighty feet in circumference. Adorned with a magnificent portico, composed of sixteen granite columns, and crowned with a pediment supported on eight columns, it was easily changed into a church. The tombs of Raphael and Annibal Caracci, the busts of Palladio, Winkelmann and Nicolas Poussin are now seen instead of the heathen gods that were formerly stationed in the Pantheon. The Rotondo is the modern name of the edifice, and the stranger ascends by steps to the circular opening in the roof. The dome was covered with bronze in the time of the Roman power; Constans the Second was the first who took part of it away, and sent it to Syracuse; the rest was employed in constructing the famous *Baldaechino* of St. Peter's, and in making the cannon which defend at present the castle of St. Angelo.

The amphitheatre of Flavian, which has been called the Colosseum or Coliseum, from its gigantic proportions, is not in so good a state of preservation as the Pantheon, because

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it was impossible to change it into a church ; but the people have some respect for the building, since Pius the Sixth erected a large cross in the middle of the arena, and fifteen altars to the memory of the martyrs, who are supposed to have perished within the enclosure. Twelve thousand Jews, whom Vespasian made captives, and brought to Rome after the taking of Jerusalem, commenced the edifice, which cost at first a sum equal to L.2,083,500 ; it was afterwards finished by Titus. The outer part of the building exceeds fourteen hundred feet in circumference ; the interior is five hundred and eighty in length, and four hundred and eighty in breadth. It was supposed that it could contain 80,000 spectators, but from calculations which appear to be more accurate, the number has been reduced to forty-four thousand. ^b When Titus opened the amphitheatre for the first time, the stage was crowded with an incredible number of wild animals of every sort,—foxes, lions, tigers, elephants, stags and gazelles ; more than five thousand were destroyed in a single day. The arena was sometimes changed into a lake twenty feet deep, the water flowed through eighty openings, and the people beheld the spectacle of a naval combat.

It is customary to visit the Vatican, when illumined with torches, and the Coliseum by moon light ; and certainly, the pale light of the moon heightens greatly the effect of the vast amphitheatre ; the imagination may conceive the ghosts of gladiators issuing from the vomitories, or the shades of captives that perished before a people accustomed to barbarous spectacles.

Vatican.

The Vatican, which is contiguous to the church of St. Peter, is supposed to be built on the site of Nero's palace. it consists of several edifices that occupy a much greater surface than both the Tuileries and the Louvre. The interior is divided into twenty courts, as many porticos, eight large, two hundred smaller stair-cases, and twelve hundred apartments. The great stair-case, which leads to the gal-

^b Simond's Travels in Italy.

lery of antiques, served as a model for the one in the Louvre, to which most judges give the preference. The chapel of the Vatican, or the famous Sixtine chapel, is richly decorated, and its finest ornament is the celebrated painting of the last judgment, in fresco by Michael Angelo. The library contains seventy thousand volumes, and forty thousand manuscripts. In the same palace are seen the school of Athens, and the other fresco paintings of Raphael. A small building which communicates with the Vatican, and commands a fine view of Rome, and the neighbouring country as far as the Apennines, has on that account been called *Belvedere*. In the same building, and in a much better situation than the Louvre, is placed the statue of the Apollo,—the *chef-d'œuvre* of ancient sculpture; the Laocoon, the Torso and the Antinous are seen in adjoining apartments.

The Vatican is the residence of the Pope in winter, and the Quirinal palace in summer. Although the form of the edifice may be irregular, it has been much admired for the magnificence of the interior, the fine view from it, and the beauty of the gardens. It was reserved, under the French imperial government, for the young prince who received the title of king of Rome. The palace derives its name from the Quirinal hill, on the summit of which it stands. It has also been called *Monte-Cavallo*, because in front of it are two groups of marble statues, each representing a horse of colossal proportions, and a youth seventeen feet in height, who appears to subdue it. The two groups are ancient, but they are not the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, as might be inferred from their names on the pedestals. An Egyptian obelisk of red porphyry rises between them, and a fountain, which discharges its waters into a basin of oriental granite, seventy-six feet in circumference, adorns the centre of the court.

Modern Rome has also its capitol, but it is no longer the capitol which the masters of the world ascended, to return thanks to Jupiter the Thunderer, whose temple commanded the town; near it rose the *Tabularium*, an edi-

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fice devoted to sacred and profane purposes,—the repository of the decrees of Rome, recorded on tables of brass. The modern capitol is an insignificant hill, and the buildings on it are the residences of the municipal magistrates. A single flight of steps, planned by Michael Angelo, leads to the top of the hill, styled by corruption the *Campidoglio*. Two antique lions of basalt guard the foot of the stairs, and two naked colossi the top; the latter were dug out of the banks of the Tiber, two hundred and fifty years ago. Each holds a prancing horse, colossal too, and yet scarcely reaching to the waist of its gigantic master. These figures, which are but of indifferent workmanship, have been styled Castor and Pollux. On a line with them are two mutilated trophies, two statues of the sons of Constantine, and lastly, at the extremities of the balustrade two milliary boundaries; the stone, No. I. on the Appian way, was formerly placed at the end of the first mile, but it stands now at the beginning.* The square or *piazza*, to which the stair leads, is regularly built on three sides; the palace of the senator occupies the front, that of the *Conservatori*, the right side, and the museum of antiquities, the left. These buildings are also the work of Michael Angelo; and by his direction the bronze statue of Marcus Aurelius was placed in the middle of the square,—the finest ancient equestrian statue in existence, and the only one that has been found at Rome.

The senatorial tower in front of the capitol, commands a vast space covered with ruins, now the *Campo Vaccino* or cow-market, formerly the *Forum Romanum*. "From this elevated station, about two hundred feet above the Forum," says M. Simond, "the eloquent voice of Cicero might have been heard, revealing to his assembled countrymen the conspiracies of a Cataline. He might even have been heard in the tribune of Harangues, situated on the other side of the Forum, and next to the Temple of Jupiter Stator,—taking the oath that he had saved the country, and all the people repeating the same oath after him. But the

* Simond's Travels in Italy.

gory head and hand of this saviour of his country, might have been seen from the same station, soon after nailed to the side of the same tribune, and the same people tamely looking on ! Instead of contending crowds of patriots, conspirators, orators, heroes and fools, each acting his part, I only saw a few cows quietly picking up blades of grass among the ruins ; beggars and monks, and asses loaded with bags of puzzolana, and a gang of galley slaves, lazily digging for antiquities under the lash of a task master.^a The gulf of Curtius may recal the patriotic devotion of a Roman general, but it does not deserve at present the name of a pond.

The Antonine column, surmounted with a statue of St. Paul, rises near the *Monte-Citorio*. The tomb of Adrian on the banks of the Tiber, has become the castle of St. Angelo. The bridge which leads to it, and which bears the same name, was the ancient *Ælian* bridge, built by Adrian ; the two statues at the entrance are those of St. Peter and St. Paul, the others represent angels.

We may leave these ancient monuments, disfigured by bad taste and religious zeal, and direct our steps to the master work of modern Rome, the largest Christian temple in the world. One fault to the church of St. Peter may be mentioned,—the principal front instead of resembling that of a temple, looks more like the front of a showy palace. The dimensions of the building are so great that the magnificent cupola does not seem to form any part of it, but appears like the dome of another edifice. The court of St. Peter, not less remarkable than the church, is surrounded by two semicircular porticos, which enclose a space that extends to the front of the building, and forms two *piazas*, of which the total length exceeds a thousand feet. The portico is surmounted by ninety-two statues of the saints, about nine or ten feet in height ; the proportions of the portal accord so well with the objects which surround it, that its great size is not at first obvious, neither do the pil-

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^a Simond's Travels in Italy.

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lars appear very large, although they are more than eight feet three inches in diameter. The dimensions of the front are equal to three hundred and sixty-six feet; the entrances to the church are five doors, under a portico four hundred and forty-eight feet long, and thirty-nine broad. The extremities of the portico form two vestibules, in one of which may be seen the equestrian statue of Constantine, in the other that of Charlemagne, both of whom, Rome considers its benefactors.

The form of St. Peter's is that of a Latin cross, those who enter it for the first time, are less struck with the size of the building than the profusion of mosaics and marbles; the length, however, is equal to five hundred and sixty-five, and the height to a hundred and thirty-six feet. The ornaments are so splendid as to be dazzling, they are arranged with more ostentation than taste. It might also be urged that the light is too great; were it less vivid it might be more in unison with the purpose of the building, or more inviting to retirement and devotion; it might also harmonize better with a finely painted window at the upper end of the nave. The principal chapels are adorned with mosaics after the models of the great masters. An antique *Giove Capitolino* in bronze, was melted to supply materials for a colossal figure of St. Peter, a figure of barbarous workmanship, which has been placed in a recess. The statue is always surrounded by devout persons, who kiss with great fervour a projecting toe of the apostle, and the metal has been actually worn off a full inch, by the kisses of three hundred years.

Baldacchino.
no.

The baldacchino or famous canopy of bronze which surmounts the high altar may give the stranger an idea of the dimensions of the building. It is nearly ninety feet high, exceeding the height of all the palaces in Rome except one; indeed the colonnade of the Louvre at Paris is somewhat lower than the canopy, which in appearance seems a mere piece of furniture that might be pushed into a corner without being missed.* The bronze used in constructing it,

* Simond's Travels in Italy.

weighed one thousand six hundred and sixty-six hundred-weights, and the gilding cost more than L.10,000. It stands below the cupola, the most remarkable part of the building. The height of the cupola amounts to four hundred and fifty feet, and the inner diameter to a hundred and thirty. The twelve apostles are represented in mosaics, and separated by groups of angels bearing the instruments of the passion. Care has been taken in the two most apparent parts of the church, to connect it with the memory of the saint, to whom it is consecrated. Thus, it is affirmed that the gilded balustrade placed before the high altar, covers the tomb and the body of St. Peter, situated beneath it, in a subterranean church more ancient than the Basilica. The upper end of the nave is decorated with a splendid monument,—the pulpit of St. Peter, supported by four colossal figures of St. Ambrose, St. Augustin, St. Athanasius and St. Chrysostom. According to tradition, St. Peter used to sit in the arm chair now placed in the pulpit ; it is made of wood, and inlaid with gold and silver. The building was commenced in the year 1450, and finished in 1606. The sum expended on it, was equivalent to L.10,291,700.

No other church in Rome can be compared with St. Peter's; many, however, are remarkable for their ornaments or antiquity. The Romans consider San Giovanni in Fonte, not only the most ancient in Rome, but in Christendom ; it has also been designated the *Baptisery of Constantine*, but the emperor was not baptized there, although it is not improbable that he enriched it. To give a detailed account of the other churches in the capital of the Christian world, would be a tedious and unnecessary task ; suffice it to say that their number exceeds three hundred.

But the number of palaces is still greater ; their architecture has for the most part the character of solidity rather than of elegance ; Vasi enumerates more than sixty-five that are worthy of being visited. There are few of them in which the emblems of poverty are not contrasted with the trappings of pride. Strangers admire fine paintings

BOOK of the Italian school,—in a sumptuous hall with broken
CXXXV. windows. “A massy gate,” says M. Simond, “opens into the body of a palace, which is not situated in a court; the court, on the contrary, being placed within the palace, enclosing it on all sides. The stairs generally are near the gate, or under an open portico in the court, so that visitors may always alight under cover. The entrance being generally left open, it becomes in consequence a common receptacle for filth. I have heard it suggested,” adds M. Simond, “that there may be something of the *Grandioso* in the squalid court of a Roman palace; an odd’idea, but not perhaps wholly groundless. The noble proprietor occupies but a small part of the edifice, the rest being intended not for private comfort, but for the display of wealth and grandeur, to be enjoyed by an admiring multitude at all hours, and in their own way, which is neither very refined, nor very cleanly.”

Neighbour-
hood of
Rome.

The country near Rome abounds with the remains of antiquity. Near the gate of St. Paul, the pyramid or tomb of Sextus announces the wealth of that ancient Roman by its size, by the paintings and ornaments in the interior. At no great distance from it are the catacombs,—the burying place of unnumbered bodies,—the grotto and the fountain where Numa used to meet the nymph Egeria. It was to Tusculum that Cicero, Cæsar and Crassus fled from the noise and political intrigues of ancient Rome, Frascati rises near its ruins. Another Horace might write a satire on Tivoli and its dirty streets, rather than compose songs in their praise. The Roman poet could no longer recognise the Tiber which afforded him such delight, but he might discover the remains of two small temples, the one dedicated to Vesta, the other to the Sibyl; he might admire the situation of the town, and its celebrated cascades,—still worthy of his verses. A house near Velebri, the ancient *Velitra*, a town founded by the Volsci, was sometimes the country residence of Augustus.

Pontine
marshes.

The Pontine marshes (*pompina palus*), are now more dangerous by their exhalations than in ancient times. The

work of Appius Claudius, or the Appian Way, which traversed them, was the first undertaking by which that part of the country was improved. They were imperfectly drained by Augustus; Trajan erected bridges and houses, other individuals followed his example, and the houses were inhabited in summer by the wealthy Romans. The causes which rendered the Maremma unhealthy, produced the same effects on the Pontine marshes. The country having been depopulated by barbarians, the waters remaining without an outlet, unwholesome miasms are diffused in the atmosphere. Those who sleep in the open air, on the banks of the marshes during the heat of summer, seldom or never awake. Several popes have attempted to drain them, and the last attempts were not wholly useless; but to arrive at satisfactory results, requires a government possessing more resources and energy than that of Rome. The yellow complexions and swollen legs of the inhabitants proclaim the nature of the country; it has been said that the people are never free from fever, but it may be affirmed, without exaggeration, that they are subject to it several months in the year. The lower animals do not seem to suffer from the insalubrity of the air; the stags, wild boars, and buffaloes are numerous and strong.

Ostia, a town founded by Ancus Martius, the fourth king of Rome, became an important place during the empire, from its port at the mouth of the Tiber; its trade, now insignificant, consists in salt. The insalubrity of the Pontine marshes extends to Ostia, and the cardinal, who is bishop of it, takes care to reside at Rome. Civita Vecchia, a well built town, and the only commercial port which the pope possesses on the Mediterranean, is not so unwholesome as Ostia. The agreeable town of Viterbo is situated to the east of Civita Vecchia; several popes are interred in its cathedral. Orvieto, on the banks of the Paglia, stands on a steep rock; there is a pit near it, to which mules descend and return by inclined planes, it is lighted by a hundred small windows. A

BOOK CXXXV. number of fine basaltic columns are situated in the neighbourhood.

Spoletto. Spoletto, on the road that leads to Foligno, contains several remains of antiquity, among others, the ruins of a theatre, and different ancient temples; its old walls and towers were perhaps erected by Narses who drove the Goths from the town. A fine aqueduct, five hundred feet in height, and of Gothic architecture, was probably the work of Theodoric. The industrious inhabitants in the small town of Foligno, carry on a trade in paper, wax-lights, and comfits.

Perugia. Perugia, near the Tiber, was an ancient Etruscan city, and an important place long before Rome; it resisted all the power of Hannibal. Placed on the summit of a hill, water is conveyed into it from Monte-Pacciano, by pipes which descend into a valley, and then ascend to the height of four hundred feet. Perugia was the birthplace of Perugino, a distinguished painter, who claims the honour of being the master of Raphael. The view from its ramparts extends over a rich and varied surface. At the distance of three leagues are seen aqueducts, temples and walls, they are the walls of Assissi, the native town of St. Francis, whose remains are still visited by numerous pilgrims.

Bologna. We may arrive at Bologna by following the windings in the Apennine chain; it is the second city in the states of the church, and the one, after Rome, that possesses the most valuable collections. The concordate of 1515 was signed within its walls, by which Francis the First reserved to himself the nomination to the principal benefices, and made over to the pope the first year of their revenue. A great many churches are contained in the town, there are besides two old towers, more sloping than the one at Pisa, which threaten destruction to the neighbouring houses. The university, the museum of natural history and antiquities, that are contained in twenty-six apartments, the library, consisting of two hundred thousand volumes and many manuscripts, the observatory worthy of being visited

on account of its meridian line, the botanical garden in which numerous exotic plants have been collected, and two scientific academies, render Bologna little inferior to the most celebrated towns in Italy. BOOK
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Ferrara, a place of less importance than Bologna, is the most northern town in the states of the church. The streets are large and broad, one of them is equal to two thousand yards in length. The most remarkable edifice or the Gothic palace was once the residence of the dukes of Ferrara. Other monuments are connected with the illustrious house of Este. The ashes of Ariosto rest in the Lyceum, and in the hospital of St. Anne, may be seen the place where, (under the pretext of madness), Tasso was seven years confined by Alphonso, duke of Ferrara. Ferrara.

Marine deposits have been gradually heaped on the harbour, which Augustus constructed at Ravenna; the town is at present two leagues distant from the sea. The Rotonda, a curious church, was constructed in order that the sarcophagus of Theodoric might be placed in it; that monument was destroyed in 1512 by the French; but the tomb of Dante, near the cloister of the Franciscans, was decorated about forty years ago by the cardinal Gonzaga. Faenza has given its name to the glazed earthen ware, which the French call *faïence*; it was the birthplace of the celebrated Toricelli. Forli need only be mentioned for its cathedral and regular streets. The town of Rimini, built on the shores of the sea, was the place where the Flaminian and Emilian roads terminated; it contains several ancient remains, among others a fine triumphal arch erected to Augustus, and the bridge commenced by the same emperor, and finished by Tiberius. The church of San Francisco, finished in 1450, was one of the first buildings in which the Roman was substituted for the Gothic architecture. Ravenna.

The small town of Urbino boasts of having given birth to Raphael. Ancona is seen to most advantage from the sea, it stands on the side of a hill, the citadel rises at one extremity, and the cathedral on the other. The harbour Ancona.

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is built in the form of a semicircle; the mole, which extends into the sea, is sixty-eight feet in height and two thousand in length; the streets are for the most part narrow and crooked. A triumphal arch was erected to Trajan, and at a later period, another to Benedict the Fourteenth, by whom the mole and the lazaretto were constructed.

Loretto.

Many, who visit Ancona, are induced to extend their journey to Loretto, a small town on a hill that commands the sea. It rose into celebrity from its statue of the virgin, formerly an object of so great veneration that, before the reformation, two hundred thousand pilgrims came to it every year, and deposited their offerings at the feet of the image. Loretto deserves a place in the history of superstition. According to tradition in the year 1291, angels carried away the house of the holy virgin at Nazareth, and placed it near Tersato in Dalmatia; three years afterwards, the same angels transported the same house to the coasts of Italy,—a thousand paces from the sea,—in the neighbourhood of Recanati. Eight months afterwards, the house which was solid, stationed itself a thousand paces nearer the town; it removed next to the lands of a noble lady, called Lauretta, where Loretto has been since built. The house, still admired by the people, is thirty-two feet in length, thirteen in breadth, and eighteen in height, many imagine it to be without any foundation, and that it rests on the ground. It was formerly a mere brick building, it is now decorated and incrustated with Carrara marble. The cedar-wood statue of the virgin stands above the chimney in the eastern wall; the garments with which the priests clothe the statue, are kept in a chest, one of them, or a red camlet gown was worn by Mary herself. The earthen vessels which the holy family used, are deposited in another chest, the window opposite the chimney was the one by which the angel Gabriel entered. The house, which the inhabitants call the *casa santa*, stands in the middle of a church, enriched with more costly relics than any other in the world.

Not more than four towns of any importance are situated between Loretto and the Neapolitan frontiers;—Macerata rising on a hill above a fruitful plain, Fermo with a harbour much frequented by small vessels, Camerino with an archiepiscopal palace, an university, and silk manufactories, lastly, Ascoli, the ancient Asculum, and the metropolis of a diocess. BOOK
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The popes possess besides two small territories in the kingdom of Naples. Ponte Corvo on the banks of the Carigliano, peopled by five thousand inhabitants, is the chief town of the one, and the seat of a diocess. Benevento, the metropolis of an archbishopric, contains several fine buildings, and the *Porta Aurea*, or marble triumphal arch raised in honour of Trajan. The first diocess is enclosed by the Terra di Lavoro, and the last by the Principato Ulteriore.

BOOK CXXXVI.

EUROPE.

*Europe Continued.—Description of Italy.—Sixth Section.
—Kingdom of the Two Sicilies.*

BOOK CXXXVI. ABOUT sixteen centuries before the vulgar era, different tribes left the Illyrian mountains, and migrated to the country between the Alps and the Adige; but abandoning that marshy soil, fatal to man, and difficult of culture, they settled in the region that extends from the Chiento to the extremity of Calabria.

Ancient inhabitants. Many of them were Liburni, a nation sprung from the *Origin of their names.* *Pædiculi*, the *Apuli*, and the *Marucini*, ancient tribes of which the names have given rise to considerable research. Court-de-Gebelin supposes that the Marucini on the banks of the Pescara, were so called from the words *Mar* and *Ru*, the former signifying a stream, and the other high or lofty. The Frentani, it has been affirmed, derived their name from the word *ren* to *flow*, because their country was watered by several rivers, which descended into the Adriatic, but it appears more probable that they were so denominated from one of these rivers, the ancient *Fronto*, or the present Termoli; in like manner, the names of different tribes in North America were found to be the same as those of rivers or mountains. According to some writers, the name of the *Calabri* was a derivative from the eastern word *calab* which signifies resin, and indicates that the

country was in ancient times covered with pines. The territory to the west of these regions, towards the gulf of BOOK
CXXXVI. Tarentum, was called *Messapia* or *Japygia*. Mazocchi makes a curious remark on the subject, namely, that the eastern word *massap* means wind, and the Hebrew word *japah* signifies *it blew*, thus the roots from which the two ancient names have been derived, indicate even in the present day the nature of the country. The lands in the Apenines round the lake Fucigno, which occupies part of a lofty basin, were inhabited by the Marsi; their name, says Court-de-Gebelin, comes from *Mar*, a height, and *ci*, water. They were the neighbours of the *Peligni*. The *Marsi*, *Peligni*, *Marucini*, and *Frentani* were not a numerous but a warlike people; they resisted for a long time the power of Rome.*

Samnium, the country of the Samnites, lay on the heights Samnium. and sides of the Apenines towards the south of the territory inhabited by the Marsi. The Greek geographer considers the Samnites, the descendants of the Sabini; Court-de-Gebelin and La Martiniere arrive at the same conclusion from the etymology of their name; they might have been first called *Sabinites*, then *Sannites*, and lastly, *Samnites*. The cause of their separation from the Sabini does not appear improbable, Strabo mentions the tradition. According to the custom of the most remote antiquity, the Sabini, (being engaged in a war with the Ombri, their neighbours), vowed to consecrate to the gods whatever was produced within their territory in the course of the year. Their efforts were crowned with success, the animals and the crops were offered as a sacrifice to the gods, and a famine was the natural consequence. One of the people remarked that in order to fulfil their vow, the children born during the year should also be included in the offering, these were accordingly consecrated to the god Mars. When arrived at the age of manhood, being compelled to expatriate themselves, they followed the chain of the Apenines, and

* Strabo, Book V. Chapter 9.

BOOK settled at twenty leagues distant from their native land.
CLXXXVI. They became a warlike and numerous people, being able to put eighty thousand foot soldiers and eight thousand horsemen under arms. Long the rivals of the Romans, they were not wholly subdued, until the dictator Sylla was inhuman enough to massacre in the plain of Mars, the prisoners who had been induced to surrender themselves by the conditions which he himself had proposed.

"I may mention," says Strabo, "an excellent law of the Samnites, one well adapted to excite men to virtue. Fathers have not the right of choosing husbands for their daughters, but judges name twenty young persons, ten of each sex, whom they consider more meritorious than the rest; the most deserving virgin becomes the wife of the most deserving young man, the next is given to the next, and so on until they are all married. But if a husband who has received a prize, changes his mode of life, or from being virtuous, becomes wicked, he is rendered infamous, and his wife is taken from him."^b

Campania. Campania, a country to the east of Samnium was well known in ancient times for its fertility and diversified scenery; in the same region was situated Capua, of which the luxury was as fatal to the troops of Hannibal, as the plains of Cannæ had been to the Roman legions. The hills of Falernum beyond it, were covered with vineyards, while the neighbourhood of Baia and Pozzuoli was adorned with the country houses, in which degenerate Romans indulged in effeminacy and luxury.

Vesuvius in the time of Strabo.

"Vesuvius," says Strabo, "rises above these places,—a high mountain, but with the exception of its summit, the soil is very fruitful. The summit, however, is sterile, and in appearance not unlike a heap of ashes. It may be inferred from the cavities in iron coloured rocks, as if they had been calcined by fire, that the mountain was formerly a volcano, containing fiery furnaces, which were extinguished, when the materials or aliment that supplied them, were

^b Strabo, Book V, chap. 16, sect. 2.

exhausted."* It is not a little remarkable to hear the Greek geographer speak of Vesuvius, nearly in the same terms that a person of the present day might apply to the extinguished volcanoes in Auvergne. The fruitfulness of Campania induced different people to settle in it at different periods; it was inhabited by the *Opici* and the *Ausones*, before it was conquered by the *Osci*, who were expelled by the *Cymeï*, a Greek tribe that migrated from Eolia, twelve centuries before the vulgar era. After having built twelve towns, of which Capua was the capital, the *Osci* were vanquished by the Samnites, whom the Romans subdued and enslaved.

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Lucania extended to the south-west of Campania from the bay of Salerno to that of Tarento. The Lucani, who inhabited the country, were a colony of the Samnites. Justin, after Trogus Pompeius, gives the following account of them. "As soon as the young men among the Lucani, arrive at the age of puberty, they are put out of the town, and sent to the woods among the shepherds; there, without assistance, without clothing, and without beds, they are early accustomed to a laborious and frugal life; they have no other food than what they kill in the chase, no other drink than the water from the stream. Thus, they are inured in youth to whatever is most irksome and painful in the life of a soldier." At the time of their settling in the country, the coasts of western Italy, as well as Sicily, were peopled with Greek colonists, and their territory received the name of *Great Greece*. The neighbours of the Lucani made war against the latest settlers; it was always their policy to oppose their invasions on the maritime districts.

It was therefore found necessary to destroy *Sybaris*, situated at the mouth of the Sybaris, now the Cosale. The town appears to have been of eastern origin, at least Mentelle derives its name from the word *Sheber*, which in Hebrew signifies plenty. It is remarkable that when the

* Strabo, Book V. chap. 10.

BOOK CXXXVI. Sybarites rebuilt the same place, its Greek name, at first *Thurion*, then changed by the Latins into *Thurium*, and afterwards into *Copia* by the Romans, retained always the same signification. *Thor* in Chaldean signifies an ox, the emblem of agriculture; and *Copia* conveys the same idea of abundance. The country of the Sybarites was rich and populous, it contained not fewer than twenty-five towns; and an army of thirty thousand men could be raised in the event of a war. But the wealth and effeminacy of the inhabitants were the causes of their ruin.

Brutii. The territory of Calabria was called *Bretium* or *Brutium* by the ancients. According to Strabo, the *Bretii* or *Brutii* who inhabited it, migrated from Lucania, but Court-de-Gebelin considers the tradition doubtful, because the name of *Bretium* comes from the Celtic word *Bret*, a forest. The Syrian word *Bruta* signifies a resinous tree; *Brutium* might therefore denote a country abounding with pines. It has been already shown that the root of the word *Calabria* signifies resin, hence it follows from these remarks that the names corresponded with the productions of the soil in different parts of southern Italy.

Sicily. Sicily was first inhabited by the *Sicani*, a people of *Basque* or *Iberian* origin; by them the country was called *Sicania*. Conquered by the *Siculi* or *Sicili*, a Dalmatian people, settled in Latium, the island received the name of *Sicilia* from its new masters. The ancient kings of Sicily were denominated *tyrants*, they are known in history by their despotism and their invasions on the coasts of Italy. After the death of Dionysius,—one of these princes, the island was at different times subdued by the Greeks, the Carthaginians, the *Mamertini*, who were a tribe of the *Brutii*, and, lastly, by the Romans.

The four provinces which compose what is now called the kingdom of the two Sicilies, were devastated by the Ostrogoths after the fall of the empire. Narses subdued them in the year 553, and compelled the inhabitants to submit to the emperor at Constantinople. Thirty years afterwards, Aatharis, king of Lombardy, took possession of

the provinces, and founded the dutchy of Benevento; Naples, Salerno, Capua and Tarento were within the dominions of its dukes. BOOK
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Puglia and Calabria continued subject to the Greek emperors. In the eleventh century, some Norman gentlemen, returning from a pilgrimage to the holy land, (at that time pilgrims carried arms along with them), remained some time at Salerno. While they resided at the court of the Lombard prince Guimar, the Saracens, then masters of Sicily, invaded the port, and exacted contribution from the prince and the inhabitants. The Normans, although much inferior in number, would not suffer infidels to plunder the town without resistance; their courage supplied them with strength, and few Saracens returned to Sicily. The people, grateful to their liberators, loaded them with presents; and, after their return to Normandy, their success prompted many of their countrymen to seek wealth and fortune in Italy.

An army was raised under the command of Ranulph; a chief who rendered important services to the Greek and Lombard princes, and obtained permission from them to fortify and settle in Aversa, between Naples and Capua. Ranulph's successors were surpassed in their exploits by the achievements of the sons of Tancred. Their alliance was courted by the princes of Great Greece; but the covetousness of the latter occasioned dissensions between them and the Ultramontanes. Manasses, general of the Greek troops, led an army into Sicily, but that army could not vanquish without the French, who gave signal proofs of their valour; whilst they were pursuing the Saracens in their mountains, the Greeks shared the booty taken from the enemy. The Normans deputed Ardoïn, one of their chiefs, to remonstrate with their allies against so flagrant an act of injustice. The Norman was scourged, conducted round the camp, and returned covered with blood to his friends. It was difficult to restrain the impetuosity of soldiers burning to avenge their general, or to prevent them from marching against the Greeks, but Ardoïn conceived

BOOK the bold project of making himself master of Puglia, and
CXXXVI. his companions seconded him with so much ardour, that the conquest was an easy one.

Norman
Princes.

William, surnamed the *Iron Arm*, eldest son of Tancred, and after him, Dreux and Onfroy, his brothers, founded several principalities; lastly, Robert the fourth of Tancred's twelve sons, and who from his great cunning was called *Guischard*, extended these conquests. Master of Puglia, Calabria, the principalities of Salerno and Benevento, he obtained from the pope the title of duke. Roger, his brother, conquered Sicily with a handful of Normans, and took the title of count; his son Roger, heir of Robert Guischard's dominions, forced the emperor Lothaire and Pope Innocent the Second to acknowledge him as king; his possessions comprehended almost all the territory, which forms at present the kingdom of the two Sicilies.^d

Thus, the Normans reigned in southern Italy; William the Third, the last of their princes, succeeded to the throne, when too young to reign, and his mother Sibylla was appointed regent. The emperor Henry the Sixth, who was related to the same family, had been nominated protector; by his instructions Sibylla was confined in prison, and he condemned her son to perpetual bondage after having deprived him of his sight and virility. Master of the throne, his ambition might have been satisfied, but his cruelty excited him to new crimes, and all the partisans of the Norman princes were destroyed. His avarice prompted him to other acts of injustice; while Richard *Cœur de Lion* was passing through his dominions, Henry confined him in prison, in order to obtain a ransom. The same emperor seized the possessions of the church, and distributed them among his favourites. The last usurpation brought upon him the thunders of the Vatican; but having been reconciled with the church, he commenced anew his cruelties in Italy with so much atrocity that his wife put herself at the head of the

^d *Histoire des Républiques Italiennes*, by M. Sismondi, *Histoire des Princes de Normandie en Sicile* by A. de La Salle.

insurgents, and confined him in a castle. Not long afterwards the empress believing her husband penitent, restored him to liberty, and he was preparing to atone for his crimes by a pilgrimage to the Holy Land; but he was poisoned in 1197, bearing the surname of Cruel, which he had too well deserved. The descendants of Henry reigned at Naples until the year 1265, when the investiture was bestowed by the pope on the conqueror, who had defeated the usurper Mainfroy.

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Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Lewis, promised to fulfil the intentions of Rome; although it was well known that the nearest heir was alive, reports were circulated concerning his death; the accession of Charles was therefore a new usurpation; indeed he himself used to affirm that his government could only be maintained by an iron sceptre. Conradin, the grandson of Henry the Sixth, laid claim to the throne, but he was defeated and decapitated by Charles, an event that tended to increase the hatred of the Sicilians against their new master. The severity of his government, and the French garrisons in all the towns reminded the people of his conquest over them. The French, besides, were dangerous rivals near their wives, these and other causes led to important results. Procida, a proscribed person, conceived the bold design of liberating his country; he was supported by the pope, the Greek emperor, and the king of Arragon. Having disguised himself, he travelled through Sicily, and excited the inhabitants to revolt; the king of Arragon, not unprepared for action, had a fleet on the coasts of Africa, under pretext of watching the Moors. In the year 1282, on the day before Easter, a lady of Palermo was insulted by a Frenchman during a procession, an insult that gave rise to the rebellion, which has been styled the *Sicilian vespers*. The tumult might have been soon quelled, had it not been for the conspiracy of Procida; the people rushed to arms, and massacred the French. The conspirators invited the king of Arragon, and his fleet to their assistance; they proclaimed him sovereign. The consequence of that event was the separation of the Neapo-

House of
Anjou.

Sicilian
Vespers.

BOOK litan and Sicilian governments; the former continued under the house of Anjou until the year 1382, and in the following century, the two crowns were again united. The possession of Naples and Sicily was the occasion of many wars between France, Spain and the empire. The Spanish branch of the house of Bourbon ruled over the two countries, until the last king fled for refuge to Sicily in 1805. Naples was first given to Joseph Buonaparte by his brother, and afterwards to Joachim Murat in 1808. The old government was restored in 1815.

San Germano.

San Germano, on the sides of the Apenines, near the site of two ancient cities—Casinum and Acquinum, of which some ruins remain, is the first town on the frontiers of *Terra di Lavoro*. Murat was defeated in 1815 near the fortress that commands San Germano. The abbot of Monte Cassino resides in the town. The abbey or convent, presenting a front of more than five hundred feet, stands on the summit of a steep mountain. A fine library and a collection of antiquities, are contained in the building. The ashes of St. Benedict, its founder, and St. Scholastico are deposited in the church. The Benedictines of Monte Cassino were formerly the proprietors and the lords of all the neighbouring lands, which now belong to the crown. Banditti infest the country round the abbey; the dead bodies suspended at different distances on the branches of trees, announce the punishment that awaits them, but does not intimidate or deter them from the commission of crimes. The Apenines in the same part of the country assume a new appearance; snow still lingers on many heights in the month of June, exhibiting streaks of silvery whiteness, which, together with the fine walnut trees, render them not unlike the Alps in Switzerland.

Dance of the reapers.

The peasants do not inhabit the vallies, because they are unhealthy; but in summer they collect the cherries, and employ themselves in other rural labours. The reapers amuse themselves by dancing, to the accompaniment of the *Zampogna* or rustic flute. Eight men

form a circle by taking hold of each others' hands; as many girls leap on their shoulders, and remain while the men dance, pass alternately under one another's arms, and make a thousand evolutions; the girls then descend, and dance or sing in the middle of the circle; lastly, at a given signal, every man receives in his arms her whom he carried on his back. The robust appearance of the men, the slender figures of their partners, and their motley costume, have rather a ludicrous effect; two pieces of cloth, the one red and the other green, encompass their waists; a silver pin binds their long black hair, which sets off their fine complexion.

It has more than once been remarked that in proportion as nature is prodigal in her treasures, in the same ratio does man become careless and slothful. The truth of the observation may be confirmed by visiting Italy, and by comparing it with other countries. It ought not, however, to be concluded that the *faç nient*, which distinguishes the Italian, is the effect of climate. The people have retained nothing of the activity and energy of their ancestors; it would be more correct to attribute the change to moral rather than to physical causes.

Charity, so wisely enjoined by the founder of Christianity, but which when applied, must be directed with judgment by legislators and the interpreters of divine truths, has contributed not a little in countries where industry has not received the necessary impulsion from government, to encourage indolence and servility, to produce corruption and all the vices and crimes which the lower orders of society are tempted to commit.

What man has visited Italy without remarking the arrogance with which the mendicant exacts the wages of his importunity? He supposes that his wretchedness gives him a right to what he implores; that notion leads to another,—mendicity becomes a trade,—a sort of industry; shame is then banished from the mind, and if the means of subsistence can be procured by alms, the people choose to beg rather than to work. A person without education

BOOK and virtue, can perceive little difference between demand-
CXXXVI. ing as a suppliant, and exacting as a robber. It is not there-
 fore wonderful that highway robbery should be a pro-
 fession in countries where mendicity is a trade!

Bandits. Beggars and bandits, the scourges of Italy, are as
 common in the kingdom of Naples, as in the states of
 the church. Between Terracina, on the frontiers of the
 Roman states, and Fondi, a miserable Neapolitan town
 inhabited by mendicants, the banditti have established
 their head quarters. Although military posts are sta-
 tioned at every quarter of a league, a stranger may con-
 sider himself fortunate if he escape an attack. Scouts
 stationed on the rocks that command the road, apprise
 their chief of a traveller's approach; in a moment, men ac-
 customed to descend the steepest heights, intercept the
 road almost within sight of the soldiers stationed to repel
 them. Wo to the brave traveller who offers to resist them,
 he may atone for his temerity with his life. Not to carry
 whatever may excite their avarice is not always a security!
 The inspection of a passport or other papers suffices to in-
 dicate the profession or rank of the person to whom it be-
 longs, and he remains a hostage until the sum fixed for his
 ransom has been paid by a friend or correspondent. The
 prisoners are seldom detained longer than the stipulated
 time, if their ransom does not arrive within the period,
 they are put to death.

Costume. These men, inured to every sort of crime, are in many
 instances the fathers of families, they cultivate their fields,
 and obey implicitly him whom they have chosen for their
 chief. They wear a particular dress,—buskins or sandals
 attached by cords that reach to the middle of the leg, a broad
 girdle bound by a silver clasp, pantaloons and waistcoat of
 blue cloth, with buttons of the same metal, an open shirt, a
 conical hat encircled with different coloured ribbons, a
 short but loose mantle of a brown colour, a sword belt, to
 which are suspended a sabre, a dagger, a spoon and a fork.
 All of them carry fire arms, and wear in their breast an

image of the Virgin or the infant Jesus. Saint Antony is their favourite patron, why they have chosen that peaceful hermit cannot be easily determined. BOOK
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The dangers one encounters on the six leagues' stage between Terracina and Fondi, and the wretched aspect of the inhabitants may heighten, by contrast, the beauty of the valley on which the last town is situated. The principal street stands on the Appian way. Bean fields diffuse their fragrance round the neighbouring country; the roads are lined with hedges of aloe, or with orange, lemon and cypress trees. At the sight of such profusion, a traveller may be apt to ask if nature has lavished these treasures on a sensual and indolent people. Historical associations give new charms to the varied and picturesque scenery, to the fine views that, in the neighbourhood of Mola, are bounded by the Mediterranean.

Near that burgh, Cicero had his country house, on the Mola, very road by which strangers travel at present, the assassins suborned by Antony, seized the Roman orator.

Gaeta, which rises like an amphitheatre on the shores of Gaeta, the sea, was the ancient Gaieta; its harbour was repaired by Antonine the Pious, and its present walls were built by Charles the Fifth; within these walls may be seen the tomb of the Constable Bourbon, whose body was deprived of the rites of sepulture for more than two centuries, from the year 1528 to 1757, because he had been excommunicated.

Capua has nothing in common with the luxurious Capua of the ancients, but the name. It was founded by the Lombards in the year 856; and the streets are as dirty at present, as they were in the time of these barbarians. Caserta, which owes its origin to the same people, contains one remarkable edifice,—the castle built in 1752 by Charles the Third of Spain. These places lead to Naples, the *Neapolis* of the Romans, the *Parthenope* of the Greeks, who in their brilliant fictions attributed its foundation to the siren Parthenope, to indicate the safety of its harbour, and its maritime importance.

Naples stands on a gulf that may be equal to fifty miles Naples.

BOOK in extent; the town and the suburbs are not less than eight
CXXXVI. miles in circumference. The broad quays, the castle of the Egg, (*Castel dell' Uovo*), that of Saint Elmo which protrudes into the sea, the island of Capri, rising like a sterile rock from the water, the blackish colour of Vesuvius, which menaces the town with its destructive fires, its sides covered with the richest verdure, and dotted with white points or so many country houses, the blue mountains that terminate in the promontory of *Massa*, the *Castel a Mare*, built on the ruins of *Stabia*, where the elder Pliny perished, while contemplating the eruption by which Pompeii was destroyed; lastly, Sorrento on the sea shore, the birthplace of Tasso, form a landscape, of which the magnificence surpasses the most gorgeous description. He who sees, for the first time, the splendid panorama unfolding itself before him, may be apt to exclaim with the Neapolitan, *Vedi Napoli et poi muori*.

The crowded quays announce a populous city, but to judge of Naples, one must repair to the street of Toledo. No street in Paris is so noisy, none exhibit so much confusion; the crowds on a Sunday are so great as to render it impossible for foot passengers to proceed; and yet three hundred carriages pass along it with great velocity, and cross each other in every direction. The Toledo may be called a perpetual fair; the *Aquaiole* distributes his refreshing beverage, the *lazzarone* sells his figs, the mountebank exhibits his wonders, and mixing the sacred with the profane, gives his hearers some notion of future bliss from the pleasure they experience in eating his macaroni. Sometimes, a funeral procession advances in the midst of the throng, with all the pomp of a triumph. The coffin is deposited in a sort of ark or bier, resplendent with gold and silver, and resting on a pedestal covered with crimson velvet.

Manners of
the people.

The motion and the bustle which distinguish Naples, are no proofs of industry or labour. The Neapolitans agitate and torment themselves without doing any thing; as they quarrel and menace each other without ever coming

to blows. It may be readily conceived that these remarks are only applicable to the lower orders, but in such classes, the national character may be easily observed. The general hatred against those who hold the balance of Themis, may proceed from the conviction that the laws are unjustly administered. If a person, caught in the act of picking another's pocket, be beaten or scourged, the people approve of the correction; but if he be conducted to the tribunal, they murmur,—they are dissatisfied. If a crime has been committed, the people pity the man who has suffered from it; but if the criminal be apprehended, he then becomes an object of sympathy. Let not the reader confound in these characteristic traits, pity for the man who is justly punished, with the jealous hatred that the people bear towards the wealthy or privileged classes, who are too often suffered to commit offences with impunity.

There is no town where the inhabitants make such use of their canes as at Naples; if an individual were to strike a hackney-coachman in London or Paris, he might be repaid with interest, but the hackney-coachmen of Naples submit to castigation with the greatest patience.

The Lazzaroni lead a very monotonous life. Unemployed, and servile from indolence or want of energy, they rarely disturb the tranquillity of a town where the police does nothing for the public safety. They have only evinced their hostile intentions on a few great occasions, and under a government odious to every class of the community. These men, who obtain as much macaroni as they can eat for three halfpence, and quench their thirst with iced water for a farthing, may easily satisfy their most urgent wants. Ice is as much an article of necessity at Naples, as bread is in temperate regions, and government takes care that the people have it at a cheap rate. It has been said that a day without ice might make the Neapolitans revolt, and there is more truth in the saying than many are apt to suppose.

Mendicity assumes all its varied forms to deceive the stranger, or move the pity of the passenger; theft, too, is

BOOK
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Lazzaroni.

Mendicity,
theft.

BOOK most common ; if a person does not use great precautions,
CXXXVI. he may be deprived of his watch or purse.

So great is the dexterity of the pickpockets, that one might believe the ancient Parthenope had been founded by a colony of Spartans.

**Revolution
at Naples.**

The revolution by which Joseph Buonaparte, and afterwards Joachim Murat were raised to the throne of Naples, was attended with the inconvenience of removing some favourites, and of impressing a new direction on kingly favour. But it had the advantage of bringing forward superior men, animated with good intentions, and even the present government has profited by the useful lesson, which the usurpation afforded. Good roads were made into remote provinces, and industry was encouraged ; order was introduced into the administration ; a regular code of laws was substituted for the inextricable confusion of ill-digested and contradictory precedents ; assassins were disarmed ; and the revenue, although almost doubled by oppressive taxes on the rich, was at least expended among the poor, and stimulated their industry. Public schools for the lower orders were established at the expense of government, and the teachers received a fixed salary of fifteen ducats a month. Although these schools were ill attended at first, the number of scholars increased gradually, and they are still increasing, for they have not yet been abolished.

Education.

The rising generation among the lower orders in the town can now read and write, a degree of knowledge which is by no means common in the country. Murat, in the year 1807, established fourteen royal colleges, and appointed able professors ; they were attended by six thousand students, but the number has decreased. Boys of noble or rich families are rarely sent to college ; some have private tutors, or receive lessons at home from the professors of colleges ; but a great many, brought up among servants, receive no education, and few instances are to be found of young men, who are devoted to literary or scientific pursuits. Of the women, comparatively few are now sent to a convent to be educated. Queen Caroline, the wife of Murat,

established, at the expense of government, a seminary ^{BOOK} for young ladies of noble families, something like the one ^{CXXXVL} at St. Denis in France, and the present authorities keep up the institution.

Among the rich, pride and vanity are the motives of ^{Manners of} every action. ^{the rich.} Women above the lower ranks, seldom or never walk on the streets; those who cannot afford a carriage, doom themselves to perpetual imprisonment in their own houses, or only go to church with one or two poor lazzaroni, hired for the occasion, who put on an antiquated livery, and carry a book and a cushion. Good natured husbands sometimes perform the office, thinking, probably, that they cannot be recognised in the disguise of a footman, and choosing to gratify vanity at the expense of pride. ⁴ The luxury of the rich is displayed in their horses and carriages; as to their morals, they do not think it necessary to sacrifice appearances to realities; a lady talks of her intrigues and her children, of her lovers and her husband.

The largest and most commodious houses are situated in the Chiaja, the finest of the five suburbs that communicate with Naples. It extends westwards, and is terminated by a long quay or rather a public walk planted with orange and lemon trees, and adorned with lawns and fountains. It is there that the Farnese bull, a *chef-d'œuvre* of antiquity has been placed; near it may be seen the bust of Tasso, for which the French erected a rotondo supported by white marble columns. The finest coffee-houses in Naples are situated in the same walk; which is crowded every evening with carriages. The different quarters of the town are embellished with fountains, and the water is supplied by an aqueduct, that extends from the base of mount Vesuvius.

With the exception of the court in front of the royal ^{Squares,} palace, all the other squares are small and irregular; the ^{streets,} dark and narrow streets near the centre of the town are

BOOK lined with lofty houses; the smooth pavement is formed
CKXXXVI. by large black stones or lava from Vesuvius.

**Theatres,
palaces.**

The theatre of San Carlos, which communicates with the royal palace, is more remarkable than any other from its dimensions and elegant structure; and no palace can be compared with the one inhabited by the sovereign. The architecture is modern, the front extends to the distance of six hundred feet, it consists of twenty-two windows and three doors adorned with granite columns, which support balconies.

Churches.

The cathedral is also called the Vescovado and San Gennaro or San Januarius, a personage held in veneration by the people, and whose blood, preserved in two small phials, excites the joy or despair of the populace according as it dissolves or coagulates on the nineteenth of September, the birthday of the patron saint. The church is of Gothic architecture, it stands on the ruins of a temple consecrated to Apollo. Of the other two hundred churches in the town, there are hardly any worthy of Italy.

Naples, says doctor Valentin, had not before the last century, a number of charitable institutions, proportionate to its population. There are at present twelve hospitals, including the Invalids, the Foundling and the Recluserio. The hospital of incurables is the largest and best kept in the town; nearly a thousand patients are confined in it, but it might contain double the number. Four clinical chairs dependent on the university are attached to the institution; the first relates to medicine, the second to surgery, the third to midwifery, and the fourth to diseases of the eye.

Industry.

The industry of the Neapolitans is confined to a few manufactures, such as ribbons and silk stockings; many are employed in making macaroni and different kinds of pastry. The perfumed soaps and the musical cords of Naples are imported into different countries. The comfits of the same town, particularly the *diavolini* are said to be the best in Italy.

We have already spoken of the catacombs at Rome,

those near Naples are more extensive. They occupy the cavities in a height situated to the north of the town. The galleries, cut in a sandy volcanic rock, which was worked at a very remote period, are in several places eighteen or twenty feet broad by fourteen high. These galleries were used as cemeteries during the first centuries of the Christian era.

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Environs of
Naples.

No course of archæology can be so satisfactory as a Pompeii visit to Pompeii,—a great city of the Roman empire, swallowed by an eruption from Vesuvius, of which the fires have hitherto spared Naples, although both places are situated nearly at equal distances from the mountain, the first in a westerly direction, the other towards the north. When the volcano which had ceased to burn, at a date anterior to the historical period, commenced anew in the year seventy-nine of the Christian era, Pompeii was overwhelmed by a deluge of ashes, water and mud. The greater number of the inhabitants had in all probability full time to escape with their most valuable effects,—a fact that may be inferred from the inconsiderable number of skeletons which have been hitherto discovered,—not one hundred in all,—and from the small quantity either of jewels or money. They might have returned after the catastrophe to collect whatever was of value, for it is very remarkable that the lowest stratum appears to have been pierced or broken, while the upper do not. Eight strata of volcanic deposits succeed each other; from which it may be concluded that eruptions have taken place at different times in the same direction. Scoria and pumice, no lava, are found among the igneous products. A modern may walk in the streets, and enter the houses of Pompeii. The high road that leads to it, is paved with huge pieces of lava, irregularly shaped, but arranged so as to fit each other, and presenting a tolerably flat surface; from the narrowness of the road, however, the wheels ran constantly in the same track, which is deeply marked on the stones. The walls of the town were first cleared, and the whole circumference is now exposed to view. These walls which from certain an-

BOOK **CKXXVI.** **cient** characters on many parts of them, appear to have been founded by the Osci, long before the foundation of Rome, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height on the outside, but they form inside an inclined plane with narrow steps for the soldiers to ascend to the top. The barracks are in a good state of preservation, they resemble a cloister for monks, being a quadrangular court with high walls and small rooms without windows, under a projecting roof supported by pillars. The indecent sketches and writings on the walls by the Roman soldiers,—the fruits of their idleness, have excited great curiosity. The rubbish has been taken away from two theatres, an amphitheatre and most of the houses in the town. It may be thus seen that it was customary for the ancients to write the names of the proprietors above the doors of the houses.

**Hercula-
neum.**

Herculaneum, buried under torrents of lava, above which a town is built, has only been explored in order to collect the treasures, which give so much interest to the museum in the royal palace at Portici. The excavations, which were then made, have been since filled. The town was larger and more important than Pompeii; it may be regretted that it cannot be seen.

**Naples seen
from Cam-
aldoli.**

The finest views of Naples are from the castle of Portici, from the Capo de Monti, where one may count its palaces and churches and observe the islands which rise at the entrance of its gulf, and the sea lost in the horizon. But the garden of Camaldoli is not less celebrated; situated on the summit of a volcanic hill twelve hundred feet in height, near a convent in which the monks are so insensible to the magic of a natural landscape, that they wonder why so many strangers visit them. The view extends towards the north, along the vast plains of Campania, bounded by the mountains of the Abruzzi; and Naples appears on one side between Pozzuoli and Vesuvius. From the same gardens are seen the lake Avernus, no longer exhaling the noxious vapours mentioned by Virgil, and no longer suffocating the birds that fly above its surface, the modern Solfatara or the ancient valley of Phlegra; the *Forum Vulcani*, the

lake Agnano; from whose bubbling waters, streams of hydrogen escape, the Fusaro, the Acheron of the poets, and lastly Baia or Baiæ, of which the soil is now arid and sterile; but its enchanting sites induced Cesar and Nero to build palaces near the temples of Diana, Venus and Hercules.

We may descend from Camaldoli, and direct our steps to the hill now called Monte Pausilippo, a promontory that separates Naples from the Phlegrean fields. A subterranean road, supposed to be the most ancient work of the kind, passes through the hill. "The road," says Strabo, "extends through the mountain situated between *Neapolis* (Naples) and *Dicæarchia* (Pozzuoli)." The breadth is so great that carriages cross each other without inconvenience, and the light of day is admitted in many places by apertures dug to a great depth from the surface of the mountain.^a The account given by the Greek geographer is a very correct one of the grotto of Pozzuoli, which may be equal to eighty or ninety feet in height, to twenty-four or thirty in breadth, and to two thousand one hundred and eighty in length. The excavations were not attended with much difficulty, the mountain is wholly composed of volcanic tufa. Although paved, it is always covered with dust, the light enters at the two extremities, and by two apertures near the centre. The servants of the wealthy carry torches before them; but foot passengers are contented with lanterns and the feeble glimmerings that pass through the openings. Twice a-year in October and February, the last rays of the setting sun penetrate through the long vista.

Temples, amphitheatres, and other ancient ruins are scattered on the coast between the subterranean passage and Cape Miseno. The small town of Pozzuoli, after having been exposed to the devastations of barbarians, was overturned in 1538 by an earthquake. The cathedral stands near the ruins of a temple dedicated to Augustus.

^a Strabo, Book V. Chap. 10.

BOOK Some parts of its ancient amphitheatre remain, but at no
CXXXVI. great distance from the town, is seen the temple of Serapis, a monument, likely to fix the attention of the antiquarian and geologist. It stands on the shore, at fifteen feet above the level of the sea, it was at a period beyond the reach of tradition, buried under volcanic ashes.

Temple of About seventy years ago, these deposits were removed;
Serapis. the pavement of the temple was discovered, and there were found marble vessels to receive the blood of the victims, brass rings to fasten them, broken statues and columns. But what is very extraordinary, pholades had pierced those parts of the marble columns still standing, with innumerable holes, that reach to the height of five or six feet.

Pholades. These marine molluscæ are very common in the European seas; they are bivalvular, armed with teeth and several accessory parts, which by a rotatory movement penetrate the hardest calcareous rocks.^f But the marble of which the columns are formed, exhibits no traces of these animals; it may be supposed therefore that the holes were made since the catastrophe by which the temple was covered with volcanic ashes. To explain the phenomenon, it has been supposed that the sea had risen at least to the height of the marks left by the pholades. But the fallacy of such an opinion may be easily shown; in the first place, the event must have happened after the commencement of our era; secondly, several ancient towns situated on the coasts of the Mediterranean, and Naples itself, must have been destroyed by such a calamity.

Explanation of the phenomenon. It is true that during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, as M. Simond remarks, the coast of Baiæ was exposed to several volcanic shocks, and the ruins now submerged

^f M. Simond is mistaken in supposing that the pholades exude a chemical acid, and thus perforate the rocks in which they are found. It is known, besides, that they make holes in wood, and if their physical structure enabled them to secrete so powerful a solvent as nitric acid, it is certain that *gastronomes* would not consider them a great delicacy, or give so much for them as they do at present.

ed attest the encroachments of the water. But if it be attempted to explain the phenomena connected with the temple of Serapis by such facts, it must be supposed, what is inadmissible, that the land has risen after having been once submerged, for the pavement of the temple is higher than the level of sea. Thus, it happens that vague conjectures are the consequence of careless observation. When the volcanic deposits were removed, and the edifice was discovered, a small lake, formed after the outlet of a stream had been closed by the deposits, watered its base. The lake might have become salt by the hydrochlorate of soda, contained in certain products of Vesuvius; and if it be supposed, what is not improbable, that the waters of the lake communicated for some time, at least, by a subterranean passage with the sea, the presence of these pholades, their prolonged existence, may be classed among the number of physical facts, which, however extraordinary, are by no means irreconcilable with the laws of nature.

A monument on the opposite side of mount Posilippo, ^{Tomb of Virgil.} formed by a large square base, constructed of stones and bricks, on which a circular tower rises, commands the respect and admiration of travellers;—it is the tomb of Virgil. The interior consists of a square and vaulted chamber, and the tomb is covered with earth, on which many shrubs grow; but the laurel planted by Petrarch exists no longer. The people say that the roots are still to be found, that they are immortal like the ashes of the divine poet, nay, that they bud, if the soil be moistened with rain, but that travellers pull the leaves as soon as they appear.

It has been seen that the small province of Naples ^{Salerno.} contains many places of great celebrity. The ancient Salernum is situated in the *Citerior Principality*; it was fortified by the Romans, that they might be better able to keep the *Picentini* in subjection, who embraced the party of Hannibal.* One part of the town extends along the sea shore, and the other rises in the form of an amphitheatre

* Strabo, Book V. chap. 10. sect. 3.

BOOK to the castle that commands it. The cathedral, surrounded
CXXXVI. by a portico supported by ancient pillars of porphyry, contains the tomb of pope Gregory the Seventh, and, according to tradition, the ashes of St. Matthew the evangelist. The port built on a gulf, was the most frequented on the coast before Naples rose into importance. But the celebrity of Salerno, in the eleventh century, depended principally on its schools of philosophy and medicine; several precepts, which emanated from the latter, were long obeyed as oracular.

The ruins of Policastro, formerly Palæocastrum, rises at the extremity of a gulf; near it may be seen the remains of the three temples at Pestum, now Pesto; they were built by the Sybarites.

Avellino. Part of the Apennines are situated in the *Uterior provincia*; Avellino or its capital was the ancient *Abellinam Hirpinorum*. The streets, though broad, are irregular & the public walks are shaded with fine trees. The produce of its territory consists in chesnuts and in the large filbert called *aveline*, from the name of the town. The Val di Gargano occupies the site where the Romans passed under the yoke of the Samnites. Ariano, a place of more importance than Avellino, is built at a greater height on the Apennines.

Aquila. Near the summits of the same mountains, and at some distance from the last town, is situated Aquila, the metropolis of the *Second Uterior Abruzzo*; it carries on a considerable trade in saffron, and four great fairs are held in it every year. The town has been more than once injured by earthquakes, and a small fort is the only part of its old fortifications that now remain. The antiquities, which are contained in it, were discovered in the neighbourhood, on the site of *Amiternum*, the birthplace of the historian Sallust. To the north-east, in the *Uterior Abruzzo*, Teramo rises in the middle of a plain, between the Apennines and the Adriatic Sea; it possesses some woollen manufactories, and, in proportion to its size, an extensive trade in grain. Towards the south-east may be seen the banks of the Pescara.

Caras, a river which descends from the Apennines to the Adriatic, and waters near its embouchure, a small town, to which it has given its name. Chieti, the chief town of the Citerior Abruzzo stands on its right bank; it is pleasantly situated, well built, and contains several fine edifices, among others a cathedral and a very large seminary.

It was the chief town of the Marrucini, and the *Teate* of the Romans, from which a celebrated religious order, the Theatines have derived their name. The order of the Theatines was founded by Caraffa, the archbishop of the town, who was afterwards Pope Paul the Fourth. Lanciano carries on a considerable trade in muscadine wine.

Campobasso, once famous for its cutlery, is situated in the district of Molise. The adjoining province of Capitanata forms the greater part of Puglia. It is divided in the direction of south-west to north-east, by a chain of calcareous heights, that terminates at Mount Gargano (*Garganus Mons*;) their declivities and surrounding hills form a large promontory on the Adriatic. The summits are covered with forests, in which are collected, as in ancient times, manna, turpentine and pitch. A large and sandy plain extends on the south of the chain to the sea. Manfredonia is the most important harbour in the province, although large vessels cannot enter it. The town was built in 1256 by Manfredi, who gave it his name.

Foggia, the chief town in the Capitanata, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1732, but it has been rebuilt with elegance and regularity. The Candelaro, which flows beneath its walls, facilitates its trade in grain. The people have long been in the habit of preserving their corn in vaulted and subterranean magazines, buildings not unlike the ancient *silos*.

Near the limits of the Terra di Bari, not far from the banks of the Ofanto, is situated the *Campo di Sangue*, or field of blood; it is there that the famous battle of Cannæ was fought. The village of Cannæ on the right of the river, stands on the site of the ancient Cannæ. The town of Canosa, the ancient *Canusium*, founded by Diomed, was

BOOK destroyed by an earthquake. The pope had a palace
CXXXVI. there, and the emperor Henry the Fourth stood at its gate during three days in the winter of 1077, imploring pardon from Gregory the Seventh, by whom he had been excommunicated.

Terra di
Bari.

The Terra di Bari, a province destitute of wood, but abounding in salt, forms part of the ancient Puglia. Altamura, or the largest town beyond the Apenine chain, which crosses Bari, contains sixteen thousand inhabitants. If Bitonto be excepted, a place that carries on a great trade in *zagarello*, an excellent wine, the principal cities on the eastern side of the mountains, are situated on the sea coast. Trani or one of them forms an enclosure round its harbour, which scarcely contains sufficient water for ordinary vessels. It is related, that in 1502, a time when people talked more of national glory than at present, eleven French horsemen and as many Spaniards, fought under the walls of Trani to support the respective honour of the two countries. The Spaniards killed two of the Frenchmen, the latter dismounted and defended themselves until night put an end to the contest, and left the victory undecided. Barletta, another sea port, about two leagues to the north of Trani, was founded by one of the Norman chiefs who conquered Puglia. Several moles, near the harbour, serve as a barrier against the billows, and an ancient citadel may defend the town in the event of a foreign attack. Bari, the chief town of the province, was thrice destroyed, and as often rebuilt, but its narrow and crooked streets, and the absence of any thing like a fine building, hardly entitle it to its rank as capital. It possesses a harbour, which although small, offers a safe asylum for ships.

Terra d'O-
tranto.

The *Terra d' Otranto*, a continuation of the province of Bari, forms what the ancient geographers called the heel of the Italian boot. *Brendusium*, now Brendisi was the harbour in which Julius Cæsar blockaded his antagonist Pompey, who made a passage for himself in the midst of the besiegers, and fled for safety to Greece. The town has been much injured by earthquakes, and the harbour

was destroyed in the fifteenth century by a method, which the prince of Otranto adopted, in order to close the entrance to the Venetian fleet. Several vessels were sunk at its mouth, the sands and other deposits being thus confined were consequently accumulated, and the port, thus changed into an unwholesome marsh, engenders every summer pestilential diseases, by which the population has been reduced to a third of what it was in past times. The town does not contain at present six thousand inhabitants. Lecce, between Brendisi and Otranto, at three leagues distance from the sea, is not only the capital, but the finest and largest city in the province; its inhabitants are held in the same repute at Naples, that the Beotians were at Athens. The valley which separates Lecce from Otranto, has been called the paradise of the country. The small town and the harbour, that have given their name to the province, stand on the site of the ancient Hydruntum, which received with the benefits of civilization, the first lessons in philosophy from Pythagoras.

Gallipoli or the first port in the gulf of Tarento, after passing cape Leuca, owes its activity to its tunny fisheries, and manufactures, which consist in cotton stockings and muslin. Tarento, at the northern extremity of the gulf, was in ancient times a place of some importance, Strabo commends its fine and spacious harbour, but at present it only occupies the space round the citadel, from which the Romans resisted Hannibal.

It was principally from the gulf of Tarento, that the ancients obtained the mollusca that supplied them with their purple. A cavity below the neck of the animal is filled with the liquid that yields the colour, but the quantity contained in each cavity is so small as to account for the excessive price which the ancients gave for the dye.

Tarento or Taranto has given its name to the tarantula, *(lycosa tarantula,)* an insect well known from the fables concerning the effects of its sting. It was long believed that those who were stung by it, exhibited very different symptoms; some laughed, others wept, one person was

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XXXVI.

mournful and silent, another continued singing from morning till evening; many were seized with drowsiness, others could not be prevented from dancing: music was found to be the most effectual remedy for all. The sting of the tarantula, although not without danger, yields readily to different remedies. The animal, a species of spider, is of a black colour with red and black streaks on the abdomen; it may be about an inch in length. The web of the tarantula serves to envelope its young, and to cover the cell which it digs in the earth. It feeds on different insects, and lies frequently in ambush for them near the entrance of its den. It often makes excursions into the fields, sometimes into the houses, but it always carries its prey home. "The eggs of the same animal," says an able naturalist, "are like the grains of the white poppy; when the insects break them, the mother tears the covering, and carries her young on her back, until they are able to provide for themselves." The male and female are only seen together at the season of coition, at other times they kill each other. It is not easy to make it leave its cell, but if it be once dislodged, and return afterwards, it allows itself to be destroyed rather than be removed a second time.

Potenza.

Potenza or the capital of the Basilicata is situated at the base of the Apennines. The same town and Matera at twelve leagues from it towards the south-east, although ill peopled, are the most important in the province, which derived its name in the tenth century from Basil the Second, emperor of the east, who conferred probably some privileges on the inhabitants. It is at present the poorest province in the kingdom of Naples.

Calabria.

Mount Polino separates Basilicata from the two provinces of Calabria,—provinces destitute of important towns, and inhabited by a poor and wretched people. Bathed on the east, the west and the south by the sea, and traversed by a branch of the Apennines, the two Calabrias are indented

with large gulfs, cooled by the sea breeze, and watered by heavy dews, springs and rivers, which increase the fertility of a black and rich loam. The Citerior Calabria terminates at Mount Calistro, and at the banks of the Neto. Cassano, Rossano and Bisignano are some of the towns in the province; the making of olive oil is the only branch of industry in which the inhabitants of Rosano are engaged, and the sale forms their only commerce. Cariati, a place more populous than any of the others, contains hardly nine thousand inhabitants; the best manna in Calabria is produced in the neighbourhood. The streets in Cosenza or the capital at the confluence of the Crati and Bussento, are narrow and crooked; it possesses however several useful establishments, such as hospitals, a college and two academies, a fine cathedral and a court of justice, edifices which strangers are surprised to see in so small a town. More important cities are situated in the Ulterior Calabria, some of them were celebrated in ancient times.

The walls of the famous Crotona are seen on the eastern coast, and its ruins encompass the modern town of *Cotrona*. Crotona, rich and populous, could recruit an army of a hundred thousand combatants within its walls and territory, Cotrona contains hardly six thousand souls. Not to mention the robust Milo, it is known that the inhabitants of Crotona were renowned, the men for their symmetry and strength, the women for their beauty; how their descendants have degenerated! Crotona contained many fine edifices; its gymnastic games and the schools of philosophy founded by Pythagoras, rendered it the first of the Greek colonies; it contains at present six churches, two hospitals, two convents and a seminary, but no buildings worthy of notice. Catanzaro, although possessing little or no trade, is more populous than Cotrona.

Pizzo is situated on the western sides of the Apenines, on the gulf of Saint Euphemia. Joachim Murat landed at its little harbour on the eight of October 1815, and attempted to regain his throne. Taken prisoner and ill-treated by those who had long acknowledged him as their

BOOK CXXXVI. king, condemned as a common malefactor, and interred in the very church which he had rebuilt, his death may be considered not only as one of the catastrophes which result from political revolutions, but as a characteristic trait of a people, who afterwards showed themselves incapable of enjoying the institutions which they apparently desired.

Gerace. The wretched town of Gerace built on the ruins of the second *Locra*, and at some distance from the ancient city of the *Locri*, does not contain four thousand inhabitants. *Bova*, a still smaller town, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1783, and afterwards rebuilt and improved by Ferdinand the Fourth.

Reggio. The country in the neighbourhood of Reggio abounds with figs and ananas; and the town is the capital of Ulterior Calabria; the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in lemons, oranges and bergamot. As a town, Reggio is nowise remarkable, its name indicates its position on the site of the ancient *Rhegium*, once, according to Strabo, a powerful city, but afterwards wholly destroyed by Dionysius the elder. The tyrants of Syracuse were dreaded on the coasts of Italy. The inhabitants of *Rhegium* formed a league against Dionysius; but when hostilities had ceased, and a peace had been concluded; the tyrant declared to the magistrates that he intended to choose a wife among the daughters of the families in *Rhegium*; the latter not wishing an alliance with their enemy, answered that they could only give him *the daughter of the executioner*. Indignant at such an answer, Dionysius laid siege to the town, and after a series of cruelties, the details of which are mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, his vengeance was so complete that, notwithstanding all the efforts of Dionysius the younger, the place could never be restored to its ancient splendour.¹ The city which was built on its ruins, fell at a later period into the power of the Romans. It was destroyed by an earthquake, and rebuilt by Cæsar, hence it was called *Rhegium Julii*. Barbarossa reduced it to ashes in 1543; between

¹ Strabo, Book 6. chap. 11.

that period and the year 1593, it was twice pillaged by the Turks, and injured by earthquakes; but the one, which happened in 1783, was attended with more disastrous consequences than any other. The last calamity by which all Calabria was devastated, was so extraordinary both from its duration and effects, that it may be necessary to give some account of it.

The first shocks were felt about noon on the fifth of February, and renewed at short intervals during several months. They were not preceded by any of the ordinary indications, and in a few minutes all the plains in Ulterior Calabria were laid waste. Those who witnessed the frightful calamity, declared that the oscillations were so frequent and so violent that nothing could resist them, —neither the works of nature, nor the most solid works of man. Edifices were overturned, and their fragments thrown to a distance. The materials of the small town of Scigliò, built on the promontory of Scylla, overwhelmed two thousand seven hundred persons that had fled to the coast for refuge. The ruins of villages rolled from the hills. The mountains opened, others gave way, and the upborne earth formed new heights. In one part, the plains were changed into lakes, and their waters covered the harvests; in another, rivers issued from their beds, and changed the direction of their course. Movements similar to the undulations of waves were seen on the land. Different places were raised into the air, and fell as if they had been mined by gunpowder. The sea rose above its ordinary limits, and many who ran for safety to the shore or to their ships, were destroyed.

Some pressed the expiring bodies of their friends, and in a few seconds shared their fate. Lovers rushed into the gulf that had swallowed the object of their affections; mothers restored to life by the care and good offices of relatives, sought their children amidst the ruins of their houses, and were buried with them in the same grave.

More than three hundred towns or villages were destroyed, and many places that have been already mentioned, were

BOOK
CXXXVI.

Earthquake
of 1783.

Effects of
the catas-
trophe.

BOOK
CXXVI.

much injured; forty thousand individuals perished, and twenty thousand were the victims of contagious diseases, occasioned perhaps by putrid carcasses in stagnant water, or under the ruins and rubbish of buildings. To add to the misfortunes of the people, the fires, left in the houses, communicated with the combustible materials, and the flames destroyed what the earthquake had spared. Lastly, the little that remained was seized by banditti, who, in the general consternation, massacred the inhabitants, and carried off whatever was of value. The inhumanity and intrepidity of these men, who rushed from several parts of Italy into Calabria, cannot be considered extraordinary by persons acquainted with the character of the Neapolitan bandits. But several examples of courage and disinterestedness might be mentioned to the honour of the Calabrians and the rest of the nation. The inhabitants of districts far removed from the scene of the calamities, rivalled each other in mitigating the misfortunes of an impoverished people;—the custom-house officers of Naples, and the Lazzaroni sent by government to Calabria, gave the wages of their labour to the poor inhabitants.

ALERTIN

Earthquakes are not the only evils to which the two Calabrias are exposed; there are others, as the blast of the girocco, which prevailing four months in the year, produces diseases, and destroys vegetation. The miasms rising from the stagnant waters in summer, compel the inhabitants to leave the plains and to reside on the mountains.

Vegetation.

The vegetation of the two Calabrian provinces, varies according to the exposure of the soil. The grape might yield excellent wine, if the inhabitants bestowed any care on its culture. The echinated liquorice (*Glycyrrhiza echinata*), a variety not inferior to the Spanish kind, grows naturally; and the leaves of the mulberry nourish an immense number of silk worms. The olive, a tree that may be seen almost in every part of Calabria, produces so much oil that the inhabitants keep it in large cisterns; the manniferous ash (*Fraxinus rotundifolia*), indigenous to the provinces, grows without culture in the plains and on all the

hills; it is during the excessive heat of summer, that it yields the juice so useful in medicine; the palm, the cotton plant, and the sugar cane flourish. The fruits of the orange and the lemon tree add to the amount of the exports, and the different kinds of grain are sufficient for the wants of the inhabitants. Larches and other resinous trees afford different kinds of pitch, and the *Bretian*, the most valuable of any, and one used for different purposes at a very remote period, is still found in the *Sila*, an ancient forest on the summits of the Apenines, which, according to Strabo, was seven hundred stadia or twenty-three leagues in length. The thick leaved aloe crowns the arid rocks; the rose laurel shades the banks of the rivers, and mingles its flowers and its foliage with the leaves of the *arrundinaria*, a sort of grass that is converted into cordage, mats and baskets.

BOGE
CXXXVI.

Spirited horses, large and hardy mules, numerous herds and flocks, woods abounding with game and wild buffaloes, might be enumerated among the animals of the two Calabrias. The ancients said that the dews of the evening made the grass grow, which the cattle had browsed during the day, —a metaphor not so improbable, as those who live in northern latitudes, might be apt to suppose.

The natural riches of the country are increased by the fish that are taken on the coast; the tunny fisheries are the most profitable; the sword-fish (*Xiphias gladius*,) serves as food to the Calabrians. The last animal has derived its name from a hard or bony substance that extends from its muzzle, and with which it defends itself against its enemies. The sword-fish grows to the length of eighteen or twenty feet and weighs sometimes four hundred pounds. It is difficult, nay often dangerous to take it on account of its great activity, and the weapon with which it is armed; it breaks the nets of the fishermen, who are obliged to harpoon it. The corals that cover the bays are valuable from their fine colour; and the fishermen take the *Pinna nobilis*, the largest of the bivalvular molluscas, covered with the long red silk, that the people at Reggio weave into different stuffs of admirable lightness.

NOT KNOWN

BOOK
CXXXVI.Manners
and charac-
ter of the
Calabrians.

The Calabrians delight in idleness, the *far niente* has more charms to them than to the other Italians; wearing loose mantles like the Spaniards, they resemble the same people in their black eyes and dark complexion. Suspicious and vindictive, a Calabrian seldom leaves his house without being armed. Tall or strong men and handsome women are equally rare in the province; the latter marry at an early age, and soon lose their looks. Notwithstanding the great number of marriages, and the fruitfulness of the women, the country is ill-peopled, and the cause may partly be attributed to the custom of relatives marrying with each other; the inhabitants of almost every village and of many small towns in Calabria are so many kinsmen and kinswomen. The children, it is known, are unhealthy, and the consanguinity of the parents may tend to perpetuate diseases. The dowry of a peasant girl consists in a small piece of ground, or in a vine, nay sometimes in a single mulberry tree.

Condition
of the pea-
sants.

Little has been done to improve the condition of the peasantry; most of them are small farmers or day labourers; the land is divided among the nobles, the clergy, and some burgesses, who let it on short leases. Thus, it happens that agriculture is still in a very imperfect state, and that a fruitful soil nourishes a poor and sickly population, scattered in wretched hovels, in dirty villages or deserted towns.

Gipsies.

We had occasion, in treating of Hungary, to make some remarks on a people of uncertain origin, who in that country are styled *Ziguene*, the same people are found in Calabria, the Italians call them *Zingari*. They are distinguished from a poor population by their greater poverty, their squalid appearance and dress. The men shave their beards, but suffer their hair to grow; they gain a subsistence by buying and selling horses, and by working iron; many of them are conjurors, they collect crowds on the public places, and perform their different feats with great skill and address. The women wander about the country, and live by pilfering, or telling fortunes. Without any fixed habita-

tion, living under tents, where men, women, children, and animals are crowded together, they form a distinct people from the other inhabitants,—they marry among themselves. According to travellers, the Zingari are more ignorant and dissolute than the Calabrians; all of them can speak Italian, but many words in their own dialect indicate its eastern origin. Their religion is a compound of Christianity and different superstitions; they admit the divinity of Jesus Christ, but they have no veneration for the Virgin. As to marriages, funerals, and baptisms, they conform readily to Catholic ceremonies, but if the clergymen refuse to celebrate them, the Zingari have no scruples in substituting others which were probably derived from paganism.

A distance of a hundred and ten leagues forms the greatest length of the continental provinces in the Neapolitan kingdom, their mean breadth varies from twenty to thirty, but they are upwards of seventy in some parts.

A phenomenon similar to the mirage on the plains of Africa, and one that can only be accounted for by the refraction of light, has sometimes been observed on the coasts of the strait, which separates Reggio from Messina. A few minutes before the sun issues from the waves in summer, a spectator on the shores of Sicily, opposite Reggio, may see forests, towers, and palaces in the air, and the whole forms the panorama of Messina, its hills, woods, and houses. If a spectator on the Italian coast, looks towards Messina, he sees also in the clouds the image of a city similar to Reggio. The illusion has hitherto been imperfectly explained, it would be less extraordinary, if a person saw the town that bounded the horizon, instead of the one near which he was placed. The phenomenon has given rise to several fables in Calabria and Sicily, for the people have inherited from the Greeks, the love of marvellous and brilliant fictions. *Fatamorgana*, a powerful fairy, rules over the Strait of Messina, she displays her aerial palaces to mariners, that they may be shipwrecked on the rocks where the modern Circe waits to destroy them.

BOOK **CXXVI.** Sicily possesses more than two hundred and thirty leagues of coast, and several important harbours, as Messina, Palermo, Syracuse, and Catania. It is divided into seven *intendencias*, and twenty-three districts. It was once the country of the arts; such was its prosperity in ancient times, that the inhabitants in the single town of Syracuse were almost as numerous as the whole present population. The same island, during the zenith of Napoleon's power, was the only state in Europe governed by a prince of the house of Bourbon. It retained its feudal customs with the parliament of the *Three Arms*, (*Tre Bracci*), until Lord William Bentick, the English ambassador, induced his Sicilian majesty to grant his subjects a representative government framed after the model of the British constitution. "The advantages or the necessary consequences of the new system," says the Count Fedor de Karaczay,* "must ere long have been felt by every class of the community. The privileged classes were to be put on an equality with the others, in order that they might contribute to the prosperity of the country. The epoch of the hundred days, the treaty of Paris, the defeat of Murat by the Austrians, enabled Ferdinand to regain the throne of Naples. The selfish and limited notions of the Sicilian barons,—the ancient feudal proprietors, were carried into effect. It was thought that the times of the three *bracci* were to return, and with the parliament, the feudal rights. All the nobles united to overturn the constitution, but they little imagined that they were to gain nothing by the change. The constitution was indeed abolished by a decree published at Messina, but the privileges of the nobles have not been restored. Ferdinand the First took the title of king of the Two Sicilies on the eight of December 1816, and Sicily was declared a province of the kingdom.¹ The nobles acknowledge their errors while it is too late to correct them; "

* See *Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile*, published in French at Gotha, 1826.

¹ According to a decree of the month of July 1824, Sicily is governed by the same laws as the other Neapolitan states.

taught by the past, they may not perhaps be again so easily ^{BOOK} deceived. ^{TO CXXXVI.}

While a Frenchman reigned over Naples, the Sicilians ^{Present} possessed a considerable inland trade, ^{state of the island.} Palermo was the residence of a king and a numerous court; but the Sicilians are now governed by the lieutenant of a viceroy, and the circulating medium, attracted to Naples, is daily becoming more scarce in the island. No manufacturing industry tends to bring back the money, which the Sicilian courtiers spend at Naples. Different objects of luxury, muslins, linens and other articles are imported from England or France, and in order to satisfy factitious, but urgent wants, the island furnishes raw materials, of which the production affords employment to a small number of hands. The most important of these materials are raw silk, averaging one year with another, not less than L.180,000, different sorts of wines, among others, those of Syracuse and Marsala, of which the quantity exported to Boston, exceeds two thousand tuns, and the value, L.59,000; in addition to these articles, may be mentioned grain to the amount of L.372,000, a quantity much less considerable than in ancient times, when Sicily and Sardinia were the *granaries of the Roman people*, fruits, that are sold for L.80,000, olive oil, equal in value to L.84,000, soda, that the people export to Marseilles, and the produce of the tunny fisheries, yielding L.15,000. Sicily carries on, besides, a trade in mercury, sulphur, alum, pitre and rock salt. Such are the only sources of wealth, and they may be mentioned to the disgrace rather than to the credit of the Sicilian government. Although there is not a more fertile soil in Europe, not a fourth part of the surface is cultivated; treasures are contained in the depths of the earth, but its gold, silver, copper, iron and lead mines have been long neglected. The gypsum, with which Sicily abounds, might be used in building, it is also valuable as a manure, it might even form an article of exportation, but the inhabitants derive no advantage from it.

If agriculture, industry and commerce were encouraged, ^{Improve.} ^{ments.}

BOOK CXXXVI. Sicily might contain, as in the time of the Romans, three times the number of its present population. But many obstacles must be removed before it can attain such a degree of prosperity; the nobility must show an example of disinterestedness, that can hardly be expected from their character and habits. The indolent and slothful would suffer from the change, for the number of monks ought to be diminished. There are no manufactories in the island, it would be of advantage to establish some in the different convents, as their number is out of all proportion to that of the inhabitants. Twenty-eight thousand monks and eighteen thousand nuns, in all forty-six thousand, are contained in a population of one million six hundred and fifty thousand individuals, which gives one recluse for every thirty-five inhabitants. The secular clergy might not perhaps be averse to such a reform, for they are said to be tolerant, from which it may be inferred that they are enlightened and well informed. They possess a third part of the land, but their influence depends as much on their knowledge as on their wealth.

Nobles.

The nobles, still more wealthy, possess almost all the rest of the country; they are composed of a hundred and twenty princes, eighty dukes, a hundred and forty marquises, thirty counts, three hundred and sixty barons, and a great many knights, who are also included in the aristocracy. The abolition of their privileges has tended to diminish their revenue, but they may imitate the Russian nobles, and add to their riches by building manufactories, and encouraging agriculture, which might be done without difficulty in a country where nature invites man to labour by repaying him a hundredfold.

Roads.

Sicily, from its situation between Europe and Africa, might easily be rendered the most commercial island in the Mediterranean; but before such a change can take place, good roads must be substituted for rugged and inconvenient paths; so long as there is no other road in the island than the one between Montréale and Alcamo, the difficulties of communication, are likely to prevent every im-

provement in agriculture. Land yields at least four per cent. to the proprietor ; he advances the seed to the farmer, ^{BOOK} CXXXVI. who returns it after harvest, and pays his rent in produce, according to the rates that are determined in every parish.

While an eternal winter reigns on the summits of Etna, ^{Climate.} the rest of Sicily enjoys a perpetual spring. In April, Reaumur's thermometer may be about seventeen degrees in the shade at noon, but when the sirocco blows, the same thermometer rises to thirty-five or thirty-six degrees. The other southern winds or the *Libeccio* from the south-west, and the *Austral* from the south, are more or less accompanied with the unwholesome effects of the sirocco. The months of November and December are mild ; people seek the shade in January, but the cold winds of March compel the Sicilians to have recourse to their portable fires.

The Sicilian wheat grows to an extraordinary height, ^{Agriculture.} the ears seldom contain less than sixty grains, both the grains and the straw are of a gold or bright yellow colour, by which they may be distinguished from the wheat of other countries. The finest crops in France or England present to the Sicilian the image of sterility, so much do his own exhibit that of abundance. The aloe rises to the height of thirty feet ; most of the roads are lined with the *Cactus opuntia*, and its purple fruit, in shape not unlike a fig, serves as food for the poor. The water melons are perhaps finer than in any other country in Europe. The fruits of the date tree arrive at maturity, their sweet juice forms a seasoning for certain dishes, or they are dried, and served on the tables of the wealthy and the burgesses. The pomegranate, brought from Carthage into Italy by the Romans, who gave it the name of *punica*, yields a vinous and acid juice, very agreeable to the people in the south of Europe. The sugar cane is indigenous to the coast opposite Africa, and the coffee shrub has been discovered in a wild state on the same part of the island. So great a variety of plants in addition to those of northern climates, might tempt the indolent Sicilian to bestow more attention on agriculture.

BOOK * Messina is situated nearer the Calabrian coast than any
CXXXVI. other town in Sicily. It was founded, according to the
Messina. common opinion, ten centuries before the vulgar era. The

Siculi, says Thucydides called it *Zancle* from a word which in their language signifies a pruning hook; probably on account of the crooked form of its harbour.^m Three or four centuries after its foundation, Anaxilas, the chief of the Messenian colony at Reggio, defeated the Zancleæ; took possession of their town and gave it the name of *Massana* or *Messene*. It was taken at a later period by the *Mamertini*, a people of Campania. The town was wholly destroyed by the earthquake that happened in 1783; although it has since been rebuilt according to a regular plan, although it has since been declared a free port, Messina is not so important as it once was; it contained before the last catastrophe, a hundred thousand inhabitants, the present population does not amount to seventy thousand.

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Port.

It rises in the form of an amphitheatre at the base of the mountains, of which the branches extend across the island, forming in our opinion, the continuation of the Apenines. The sides of these heights are intersected by ravines, they are covered with a thousand varied plants, that rise above the palaces of Messina. The agitated waters of Carybdis and Scylla, the terror of ancient navigators, are seen under the walls of the city. Built on uneven ground, Messina may be about six thousand yards in extent; a promontory of rocks and sand protrudes in the form of a semicircle, and affords a spacious and safe anchorage for ships. A large citadel, several forts and batteries defend the entrance into its harbour, which may be considered one of the finest in the Mediterranean. The streets are broad and regular, they are paved with large

^m Strabo corroborates the opinion of Thucydides; see book vi. chap. 3. § 6. Thus, it might be easy to prove the Greek origin of the Siculi, for the Greek word *σαγήη*, which was pronounced *zanclê*, signifies also a scythe or pruning hook.

pieces of lava. The well built quays are lined with low houses, probably that less danger may accrue in the event of earthquakes. Four or five large but irregular squares or piazzas may be remarked rather for the profusion than the taste or selection of their ornaments; they are all decorated with marble fountains and bronze statues of ordinary workmanship. The royal palace, in point of architecture, the finest building in the town, is not yet finished. The churches may vie with others in Italy, in the number of their paintings and images, which are placed together without much judgment. The cathedral built by Count Roger, is decorated with twenty-six columns of Egyptian granite, and they have a very singular effect near Gothic ornaments of the thirteenth century.

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474. 25. 14

The people are ill educated in Messina, few among the lower orders can read, and still fewer among the nobles are well informed. The different places of education are a royal college and six gratuitous schools, two of which are reserved for young nobles; there are besides a seminary for four hundred pupils, and forty-six convents for men or women. Among other institutions, may be mentioned a bank, several mounts of piety, a lazaretto and a large hospital.

Places of
education,
&c.

Taormina stands on a hill near the shore, about twelve leagues to the south-west of Messina. Although not peopled by more than three thousand inhabitants, it contains a great many churches and convents. The Roman way that leads to it, and the vast remains of a theatre, may prove it to be the *Taurominium* of the Romans, formerly a considerable town, which Arabs and earthquakes have more than once destroyed. The edifice already mentioned, the most remarkable of any in *Taormina* is more than two hundred feet in diameter, and it serves to give the moderns, a correct idea of ancient theatres; although of so great dimensions, the space allotted to the actors was only a few feet in depth, not more than the space in modern theatres between the curtain and the orchestra. The sculptures that adorned the theatre, now decorate mona-

Taormina.

BOOK teries; their profane origin was no protection against the
CXXXVI. pious zeal of the Norman princes.

Etna.

The river of Cantara, that still retains the name of *Alcantara*, which was given it by the Arabs, separates the plain that commands Taormina from the last declivities of Etna or *Gibèl*, a name also of Arabic origin, and one that signifies a mountain. A pyramidal rock forms the summit of the great volcano, of which the crater is more than a league in circumference, and seven hundred feet in depth. Many strangers have visited it, but few have ever reached its frozen summit, so much do the difficulties and dangers increase, after the first regions of snow are past. Not many years ago an English traveller, who reached the crater, was rash enough to descend it, by means of ropes attached to his waist; he was drawn up after having given the signal to his guides, but they were unable to restore him to life. The lava and scorise of Etna are, as useful in fructifying the ground as the same substances on Vesuvius; thus, the base of Etna, which some writers consider equal to a hundred leagues in circumference, affords the means of subsistence to a hundred and eighty thousand inhabitants.

Gigantic
chestnut
trees.

The plants in the same part of Sicily reach to an extraordinary size; near the volcanic promontory of Aci, a

* The silence of Homer concerning the fires of Etna, render it probable that it was in the same state in his time, as Vesuvius was in the time of Strabo. The number of its eruptions from the age of history to the present day amounts to eighty-one; namely,

| | |
|---|----|
| From the time of Thucydides to the year 481 before Christ | 3 |
| In the year 122 before Christ | 1 |
| In the year 44 of the vulgar era | 1 |
| Do. 252 | 1 |
| During the twelfth century | 2 |
| During the thirteenth | 1 |
| During the fourteenth | 2 |
| During the fifteenth | 4 |
| During the sixteenth | 4 |
| During the seventeenth | 22 |
| During the eighteenth | 32 |
| Since the commencement of the nineteenth | 8 |

° Manuel du voyageur en Sicile, by M. le comte Karaczay.

place connected with the fable of Acis and Galatea, old chesnut trees, the silent witnesses of political revolutions BOOK
CXXXVI. and natural convulsions, extend to a great distance their wide spreading branches. One of them is twenty-four feet in diameter, another is fifteen, but the most remarkable of any, and one that many consider a sufficient inducement for strangers to go out of their way to examine, is the *Castagno dei cento cavalli*, not an inaccurate designation, for according to M. Simond, a hundred horses may find shelter under its shade; the circumference is not less than a hundred and twelve feet.

Catania or Catane, the ancient *Catana*, is situated at Catania. the base of Etna, on the sea-shore; it was founded seven centuries before the vulgar era, but it has been often destroyed by lava and earthquakes, and it does not cover at present more than a fourth part of the surface which it occupied when Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, changed its name into Etna, and peopled it with new inhabitants. The town is large and well built, its fine edifices, which render it not unlike Turin, are so many proofs, not of its prosperity, but rather of its misfortunes; for in Catania, houses never become old, they give way either to lava or volcanic shocks. It is to the earthquakes of 1693 and 1783, that it owes its magnificence; almost wholly destroyed, it was rebuilt with greater regularity. Most of its edifices have been since injured by the shocks in 1819. The cathedral is one of the finest; the walls of the sacristy are covered with fresco paintings, which represent the ravages of the eruption in 1669; during that period, a torrent of lava, a league in breadth, was accumulated behind the walls of the town, which are more than sixty feet high, but the burning stream flowed over them into Catana, crossed the city, and formed a lofty mole in the sea, which adds at present to the safety of the harbour. The people, however, are persuaded that the town owes its preservation to St. Agatha, the tutelar saint of Catania, who suffered

BOOK XXXVI. martyrdom in the same place under the reign of *Decius*. It is true that they attribute to their own sins, the misfortunes which the protection of the saint cannot avert.

Convent of the Benedictines.

The convent or rather palace of the Benedictines, forms a striking contrast, by its magnificent architecture, with the simplicity that is so well adapted to a house of devotion. The monastery may be considered a museum of the antiquities that have been discovered in the neighbourhood; it possesses besides several valuable paintings, a collection of natural history, a large library, and gardens made at much expense on a volcanic bed.

Antiquities.

A great many antiquities are contained in the Biscari museum, which was founded by a wealthy noble of the same name, who spent his fortune in exploring or digging for antiquities in the territory of Catania. The ancient theatre and amphitheatre, the old walls, baths and temples were buried under several layers of lava and alluvial deposits, that were removed by the same individual; lastly, the town is indebted to him for several ancient statues, and a basaltic elephant carrying an Egyptian obelisk on its back.

University.

Although the religious houses in Catania are richly endowed, sufficient funds are not wanting for the university. The professors are distinguished by their attainments, and their classes are attended by five hundred students; those among the nobles, who are educated in the same institution, are in general well informed. A convent in the town, serves as a residence for the knights of Malta, whose predecessors were for a long time the terror of the Crescent.

Industry and commerce.

The territory of Catania produces plenty of corn, wine, lint, olives and silk. Much amber, and some pieces of a bright red colour, are collected on the coast near the mouth of the Giaretta, formerly the Simæthus, — a river celebrated by ancient poets. These products maintain the industry and commerce of the town; the inhabitants carry on a trade in olive oil, some manufacture linen and silk stuffs, while others are employed in making amber crosses and chaplets.

The road from Catania to Syracuse is not nearly so good

as the one from Messina to Catania ; indeed the former extends along the sand on the sea-shore. But the Phrygian bonnet, still worn by the inhabitants, recalls some associations not without interest, and the traveller passes through a country embellished by the brilliant fictions of the Greeks. The banks of the Simæthus are still covered with the fragrant flowers, which Proserpine gathered, before she was carried away by Pluto,—the god of hell and of Etna, who shared with her his empire.

The fountain of Arethusa issues from a rock near the ancient Syracuse, which the Greeks called *Pentapolis* from its five quarters ; the fountain serves to recal the story of the nymph Arethusa, flying from Alpheus, but her metamorphosis availed her little, for the ancients supposed that the Alpheus passed under the sea, and united his streams with the Arethusa ; a notion sufficiently poetical, but contrary to physical geography, by which the impossibility of such a subterranean communication may be easily demonstrated.¹ The fountain, which Cicero describes as *incredibili magnitudine* and *plenissimus piscium*, can no longer be recognised, it is a small and narrow stream, where the women of modern Syracuse are employed in washing clothes. The modern town does not cover a suburb of the ancient city, the latter did not long survive the decline of Athens. Syracuse is built on the island that the ancients called *Nasos* ; the circumference of the town, including the large and small harbour, is hardly equal to a league, while that of the ancient city amounted to nearly eight.

Some idea may be formed of its great population in past times, from the extent of its catacombs ; they are situated on the plain where the old church of St. John stands at present, and they are cut in a sort of sandy limestone. Long and regular galleries, extending in every direction, are interrupted at different distances by large circular halls, covered with stucco, and open at the roof so as to admit

¹ Strabo refutes triumphantly the common opinion that existed in his time concerning the junction of the Alpheus and Arethusa.

BOOK CXXXVI. the light and the air. Niches and tombs are hollowed on the sides, and in some of them, twenty coffins, placed one above another, were found; and pieces of money, the fare for the ferryman of Acheron, have been observed near several skeletons. It was in the same place that Cicero discovered the tomb of Archimedes.

One may still trace the enclosure or outer wall which Dionysius built round the town, and examine the remains of a large theatre and amphitheatre, cut in the rock.

The Ear of Dionysius.

The celebrated prison, called *the Ear of Dionysius* is not a building, but a cavern, perhaps the quarry out of which old Syracuse was built; its form is most favourable to the repercussion of sound, high, narrow, pointed above, and presenting a singular curve in its horizontal depth. It is so sonorous that Dionysius might have placed himself near the opening above it, and heard whatever the prisoners said in a whisper. The tearing of a piece of paper makes a noise not unlike that occasioned by knocking a heavy stick against a stone; some notion may thus be formed of the effect produced by the discharge of a pistol, an experiment with which the *ciceroni* are not unwilling to gratify strangers.

Modern.

Modern Syracuse has been much injured by earthquakes; the one that happened in 1693, did not last more than four minutes, but it destroyed almost all the houses, and a fourth part of the inhabitants. Although now an insignificant town, it possesses a theatre and a very valuable museum, in which may be seen a statue of Venus Kallipyge, supposed to be the one described by Athaneus, and given to the Syracusans by the emperor Heliogabalus. The cathedral or the ancient temple of Minerva, was transformed into a church about the end of the second century; its most precious ornament is a Madonna of solid silver, as large as life; the lady appears in a robe covered with diamonds and other precious stones, on solemn occasions,—such as the day of an annual visit which she makes in procession and with much ceremony, to another Madonna in the neighbourhood.

Mount Laurd, which rises to the west of Syracuse, is one of the highest in the three chains that traverse Sicily. BOOK
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Calatagirone, an industrious and commercial town, is situated on the southern side of the same chain, at a considerable elevation; the inhabitants are engaged in commerce, agriculture and the useful arts. It contains many churches and priests, convents and monks, a royal college and several hospitals. Two or three fairs are held every year in the town; and according to different authors, the population amounts to nineteen thousand six hundred inhabitants; but it is not improbable that the number has been overrated. It stands on the site of *Hybla Minima* or *Heræa*, as it is called in the itinerary of Antonine. A bad road passes through Calatagirone from Catania to Castro-Giovani, a town of eleven thousand souls, which from its position on a hill, and from some remains of antiquity, was probably the ancient *Enna*, a place mentioned by Strabo; within its walls, about a hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, slaves revolted and maintained a long and obstinate siege against the Romans. The neighbouring country was and is still very fruitful in corn. Ceres had a magnificent temple in the town, which was styled the capital of her dominions; at no great distance from it may be seen the grotto, by which Pluto returned to the infernal regions, and took Proserpine along with him. Other
Towns.

A road from Castro Giovani leads to Girgenti, but by following the course of the Salso, one may reach Alicata, a town of twelve thousand inhabitants, protected by two forts, and well known in Sicily for its pastry and macaroni. The harbour, although small, is much frequented, and the ruins on Mount Serrato in the neighbourhood, are, according to some antiquaries, the remains of Gela, the birthplace of the poet Apollodorus, of the philosopher Timagoras and the tyrant Gelo. At a short distance from the same place may be seen the tomb of Eschyles. Girgenti.

Girgenti, of which the streets rise like steps one above another, on the highest mountain near the coast, is a dirty,

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ill-built and by no means a commercial town. It possesses an orphan hospital, a lyceum with a library and a collection of medals; it contains also an academy, an episcopal palace, forty-six churches and fifteen monasteries, although its population does not exceed fifteen thousand souls. It rises on the site of the citadel, that Dedalus built at the request of king Cocalus, to defend *Agrigentum*. The ruins of the ancient city are situated at a mile and a half to the south-east of *Girgenti-Vecchio*. Several convents rise within its enclosure, which consisted of rocks cut in the form of walls. *Agrigentum*, which Strabo calls *Acragas*, from the name of the stream that watered it, was founded six hundred years before the vulgar era; Amilcar destroyed it two hundred years afterwards; having been rebuilt, it was taken by the Romans. The population amounted to two hundred thousand souls, and at comparatively so late a period as the year 941, it was a considerable town, when the Arabs or Saracens laid it in ruins. If the inhabitants were unable to resist their enemies, it was owing to their luxury and effeminacy. The long tyranny of Phalaris, his cruel and dreadful tortures compelled them at last to shake off the yoke. While Carthage was in its splendour, the people of *Agrigentum* were menaced with an attack from that naval power. The magistrates decreed that the citizens in rotation should watch the ramparts during the night; and in order that the service might not be attended with too much inconvenience, every man on duty was permitted to have a tent, & woollen covering and two pillows. The citizens were unwilling to submit to the labour, and the decree occasioned much discontent. The philosopher Empedocles, who perished in the crater of Etna, was born at *Agrigentum*; he taught his countrymen to eat and to make merry as if they were to die the next day, and to erect temples and edifices as if they were to live for ever. The public buildings were magnificent; strangers admire the temple of Concord, which, with the exception of the roof, is still entire, the others, for their ruins exist at present, are the temples of

Castor and Pollux, Juno-Lucina, the Olympian Jupiter, Ceres and Proserpine, Hercules, Apollo and Diana.

It may be superfluous to mention the towns in the interior of Sicily; all the industry of the country is concentrated in the different places on the coast, and it is there too that the stranger finds subjects for meditation, in the historical recollections connected with them. Timoleon, at the head of six thousand Syracusans, defeated an army of seventy thousand Carthaginians, near the *Platani* and *Calatabellota*, a river twelve leagues in length, and honoured by the ancients with the pompous title of *Crimisus*.

An arid plain beyond it, extends to the sea-shore, where the town of *Sciacca* rises; its wretched appearance is by so much the more remarkable as it contains twelve thousand inhabitants, and because great quantities of grain are exported to foreign countries from its harbour. Few Vestiges of Selinuns, (*Thermæ Selinuntiaë*,) now remain, a town celebrated in ancient times for its warm springs, for its fine earthen ware, incorrectly denominated Etruscan, and also as being the birth-place of Agathocles, who from a potter, rose by his talent to the throne of Syracuse. Selinuns was situated in the territory of Castel Vetrano on the right bank of the Belici, but the ruins of ancient temples and other edifices, that the inhabitants call the *Giant's Pillars*, (*Le Piliéri de Giganti*,) are all that remain of the ancient town. The tempest, says a traveller, sometimes sweeps away the deposits which now cover the port of Selinuns, and reveals for a few seconds, quays, columns, and rings that the billows conceal anew under a moveable sand.

Innumerable lizards frisk about the ruins, the *aloe Mezzara* sends up its tapering shoot, and the wide spreading opuntia covers them with its shade. A deserted but fruitful plain extends beyond them to Mazzara, a town peopled by eight thousand inhabitants. Marsala is situated on

BOOK
CXXXVI the other side of a hill, near the sea-shore; the neighbouring country is famous for its wines, the plants were originally imported from Madeira. The town stands near the ruins of *Lilybeum*; a Carthaginian city that maintained a five years siege against the Romans; in the same place, according to Livy, the Carthaginians kept a garrison of ten thousand men after the ruin of Carthage. *Trapani*, an agreeable town to the north of Marsala, stands on a peninsula at no great distance from the site of the ancient *Dreptunum*. The islands of Favignano, Levanzo and Maretino may be seen from its ramparts. It was near these islands that the consul Cladius Pulcher was defeated in a naval engagement by the Carthaginians; before the engagement, the consul ordered the sacred chickens to be thrown into the sea; exclaiming—let them drink, if they will not eat; but on the same coast, Caius Lutatius gained a victory over the same people, which enabled the Romans to make themselves masters of Sicily.

Ruins of Segesta. The sterile country between Trapani and Alcamo may render the stranger better prepared to contemplate one of the finest ancient monuments—all that remains of Egesta or Segesta, celebrated for the temple of the Erycinian Venus; the town situated on a height at the base of mount Eryx, was deserted and almost in ruins at so early a period as the time of Strabo. All the travellers, who have examined the temple are unanimous in its commendation. The effect it produced at a distance, says M. Simond, increased as I approached. Such is the magic of its proportions, and the beauty of its forms, that at whatever side it may be viewed, it is equally admirable. It has braved the influence of time,—the edifice stands entire, columns, entablature, pediment, all except the cella and roof, which have disappeared. The columns of the Ionic order are about seven feet in diameter at the base, tapering towards the top, and only four diameters in height, but they form with the front a total height of fifty-eight feet. The di-

mensions of the interior are about a hundred and seventy-four feet by seventy-two; six pillars support the front, and fourteen each of the sides.[†]

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The country round Alcamo is fruitful and romantic; the name of the town indicates its Arabian origin; it was founded in the year 828, by Alkamah, a Saracen prince. When seen from the heights that rise above it, its towers and its walls give it the appearance of a Moorish town. The women have preserved the eastern costume; they never walk on the streets without being covered with a large black mantle, that conceals part of the face. The town contains thirteen thousand inhabitants, and most of them adore their Madonna, which has already performed unnumbered miracles, indeed the people maintain that there is not a better Madonna in all Sicily.

Montreale or Morreale, a town of eight thousand inhabitants is also situated on a hill. The church and the convent of benedictines, which were founded in the twelfth century, by the Norman prince William the Good, served as a nucleus for the town; houses were at different periods grouped around them. The abbot of the monastery has the title and the rank of an archbishop, the monks of Mount Cassino form his chapter. The church was much injured by a fire in 1811; its principal entrance is formed by a bronze portal covered with reliefs, the columns are of granite, the walls are incrustated with mosaics, and the pavement consists of porphyry and different coloured marbles; within the same building are contained the mausoleums of William the Good, and of his father William the Bad. The convent is adorned with an admirable painting by Pietro Novelli, the Sicilian Raphael.

An excellent road leads from Montreale to Palermo, country houses are scattered in the neighbourhood, arid rocks, rising apparently from the sea, are heaped above each other in a fruitful valley, covered in some places with the spiny aloë and the cactus. Palm trees and tall bam-

[†] See Simond's Travels; and also the Manuel du Voyageur en Sicile, by the Count Fedor de Karaczay.

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hills wave their verdant tops in the air, and the light breeze that agitates the corn fields, enlarges the undulating surface. The bright foliage of the orange and lemon trees, the smooth branches of the olive, the large-leaved vine, and the graceful rose, laurel, form a varied landscape of the richest verdure. The capital of Sicily, the ancient *Panormus*, a town founded by the Phenicians, now encompassed with walls, rises in the form of a circle on a gulf. It appears smaller than it really is; two streets which intersect each other transversally, divide it into four nearly equal parts. The breadth of these streets may be about forty or forty-five feet, and the length from twelve hundred to fourteen hundred paces. One of the streets, the *Cassar*, derives its name from the Arabian word *Cassar*, which signifies a palace; the other is called the *Macqueda* or *Strada Nuova*. The place where the two streets cross each other, forms an octagonal court; at no great distance from it, is situated the Pretorian court, which is much larger. A fountain loaded with ornaments, and of such dimensions, that the eye cannot embrace the whole, rises from the centre of the last court; it consists of several basins placed above each other, and separated by galleries covered with statues and animals, that throw out the water in different directions. The piazza of Bologna is adorned with an equestrian statue of Charles the Fifth, king of Sicily, the best work of Volsi, a Sicilian sculptor. The gates of the town are shut at night, the two finest are the *Porta Felice*, a triumphal arch that forms the entrance from the harbour into Palermo, and the *Porta Nuova* at the extremity of the *Cassar*, and contiguous to the royal palace. The architecture of the last building is by no means creditable to the good taste of the Palermitans; constructed in different periods, the different parts are not in harmony with each other. The most remarkable part of the edifice is the chapel built by king Roger in 1129; and it too is only remarkable for its grotesque paintings, its coarse mosaics, and an architecture in which the Gothic and the Grecian style

of the middle ages are united. The highest parts of the palace, or the observatory was finished in 1791; it was there that the celebrated abbé Piazzi discovered, in 1801, the planet which he called Ceres. The oldest fresco painting in Europe may be seen on the walls of the large hospital, it was finished in the fourth century; the triumph of Death forms the subject, one that cannot be very consolatory to the patients who are confined in the hospital. The vicaria or court of justice, is at once the tribunal and the prison; the guilty and innocent, criminals and accused, are confined together, and remain sometimes ten or fifteen years before the court condemns or acquits them; "I shall give an example," says M. Simond, of the manner in which the prisons are filled, as I am sure of the fact. A few months ago, two men were quarrelling on the street with knives in their hands, when a third person interfering, was stabbed, and the murderers fled. The *shin* who happened to be at hand, seized three of the bystanders, and conducted them to prison, where they are now detained, without any evidence whatsoever against them; and unless they have powerful friends or money, they may remain there half their lives. In the meantime, no measures have been taken to bring the real murderers to justice. An epidemic lately carried off eighty individuals in confinements. The original cause of detention, often trifling, is forgotten; witnesses are gone away, nobody thinks of prosecuting; it is hopeless for a prisoner to expect a trial; he may look forward to a gaol delivery, to which an arbitrary government has sometimes recourse, when the prisons are too full. The indifference as to the fate of prisoners, encourages the powerful to persecute and oppress the poor. The number of prisoners amounted to seventeen hundred in the year 1818. The prisons in a country nine times more populous than the province of Palermo, those under the jurisdiction of the royal court at Paris, did not contain at the same period thirteen hundred persons.

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BOOK
CXXXVUseful in-
stitutions.Moorish
palaces.

Cathedral.

Caverns of
the capu-
chins.In leaving
the caverns

Several articles of considerable value have lately been added to the museums of antiquities and medals; and the paintings, which are now collecting in the galleries of the university, are likely to be of use to those who devote themselves to the fine arts.

Two edifices of Moorish architecture are situated in the suburbs of Palermo; the one is the palace of Zizay, the property of an individual, and the other, the palace of Cudba, which has been changed into barracks for cavalry; they were built by an emir, who called them after the names of his two daughters. The town contains, besides twenty-seven principal churches and several others of a smaller size, sixty-seven convents, five hospitals, eight charity schools, an academy, three public libraries, four barracks, two theatres and two mounts of piety.

The *Duomo* or cathedral, one of the finest Gothic monuments in Sicily, was founded in the year 1166; it may bear a comparison with the most magnificent buildings in Cordova and Grenada; but the interior, although profusely adorned, does not correspond with the exterior; marbles, granite, jasper, alabaster and lapis lazuli are lavished in the same way as in other Italian churches. Next to the cathedral, the church of Jesus is the most remarkable, not only for its architecture, but for its precious ornaments, its paintings and basso-relievs.

The catacombs cut in the rock below the church of the capuchins, possess the singular property of converting into mummies the bodies that are deposited in them. The dead, placed upright in niches, are sumptuously attired; their arms hang downwards, or are crossed on the breast. The nobles attach much importance to this method of sepulture, and purchase very dearly the right of obtaining it; indeed the revenue that the capuchins thus derive, forms the principal source of their wealth. On certain festivals, these bodies are clothed in gorgeous apparel; relatives, friends, perhaps lovers are then admitted to see those who were dear to them. But the magnificent dresses of the dead form surely a painful contrast with their shrivelled

skin,—the contracted lip no longer concealing the teeth,—the disagreeable grimace on some countenances,—the smile on others, as if they looked in pity on contempt on the vain grandeur and fleeting pleasures of the world.

Palermo boasts of having been the birthplace of St. Agatha, who received the palm of martyrdom in the third century; the same town claims the honour of having given birth to another personage in the legend, to another object of veneration to a credulous people. A Sicilian poet placed St. Rosalia above all the saints in paradise, nay more, above the Virgin herself. According to tradition, she was the niece of William the Good; at fifteen years of age, she renounced the world, lived in complete solitude, and died unknown. While the plague depopulated the town in 1624, a hermit declared that he had seen a vision, in which God revealed to him a cavern on Mount Pellegrino, where the bones of St. Rosalia were to be found; these bones, it was necessary to carry in procession round the walls of Palermo, in order that their sacred virtue might drive away the plague. No one, until that period, ever heard of St. Rosalia, no one knew that such a person ever existed. It was rather too much to expect that her remains could be found five centuries after her death. The magistrates paid little attention to the story of the visionary; but the people believed it, and to satisfy them, a deputation of monks, with the hermit at their head, was sent to the cavern. The bones were found, and the plague in the course of time disappeared. The remains of St. Rosalia are now enclosed in a magnificent shrine on the very place from which they were first removed, and to which pilgrims from Italy and every part of Sicily resort.

A festival that commences on the fifteenth of July, lasts several days, and those who have seen it, affirm that there is a greater display of pomp and pageantry on these occasions, than during the holy week at Rome. The shrine of St. Rosalia is then carried in procession through the streets of Palermo. Fifty-six mules richly caparisoned are attached to an immense vehicle seventy feet long, thirty

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— and the

Saint Ro-
salia.
— person
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Festival of
St. Rosalia.

BOOK broad, and eighty high, containing a numerous orchestra, **CXXXVI** and adorned with orange trees, shrubs and flowers. The holy chariot, if it may be so called, terminates in a dome, supported by six Corinthian pillars, and beneath it is placed the gigantic statue of St. Rosalia, which consists of massive silver. The saint with her numerous suite and her guard of cavalry, return home in the evening, when every house is illumined, when every priest or monk that accompanies her, holds a lighted torch in his hand. Fire works are then discharged from every part of the town, and the square is crowded with carriages from midnight until two o'clock. Horse races commence on the morning of the second day; in the forenoon, the saint and her retinue pass through different parts of the town, in the evening the same illuminations are renewed, and the fire works are more brilliant; the same amusements are continued during the third day. There are three races on the fourth, and the cathedral is lighted in the evening with thirty thousand wax tapers. Lastly, the saint is accompanied with a very numerous procession on the fifth day, for all the priests and monks in the town must attend; they pass round the Pretorian court, and the fountain is changed in an instant into a fountain of fire.

The festival attracts to Palermo nearly a fourth part of the population of the island, and costs the municipality about sixty thousand ducats. The interest that the Palermitans of all ranks and all ages take in the vain show, the luxury that prevails, the importance attached to trifles, seem to indicate that the blood of the ancient Greeks, who were so devoted to ceremonies and religious festivals, flows still in the veins of the Sicilian people.

Walks. The finest public walk, or the *Marina*, as it is called, extends along the sea-shore, and leads to the *Flora*, a large garden tastefully planted, and kept up with much care; it communicates with a botanical garden, containing upwards of four thousand exotic plants. The fine edifice in the centre of the last garden, the work of a French archi-

fect,* is now set apart for lectures on botany and natural history. BOOK
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The Gulf of Palermo cannot be compared with the Gulf of Naples; mountains scorched by a burning sun, proclaim the vicinity of Africa. Mount Pelegrino, the *Eveta* of the Romans, is the highest of any that rise like an amphitheatre round the town; their sides are adorned with gardens and country houses, in the midst of which may be remarked the *Favorita*, a royal park, stocked with an innumerable quantity of hares and pheasants. The position that Antonine assigns in his itinerary to *Hyccara*, a town mentioned by Thucydides and Plutarch, is sufficient to prove that the present village of Carini stands on the site of the ancient city,—the birth-place of *Lais*, the celebrated courtesan. The wretched town of Termini, well known in Sicily for a wealthy convent of benedictines, built by pope St. Gregory, is situated on the coast near the site of Himera, a town founded six hundred and fifty years before the Christian era, by a colony sent from Messina or Zancle. Gelo defeated Amilcar under its walls, but his defeat was avenged by Hannibal, who razed the town, and put its inhabitants to the sword. The other towns and villages on the coast, are too insignificant to require notice. Melazzo, built on a promontory at eight leagues from Messina, is the ancient *Myla*, where the Romans gained the first naval victory over the Carthaginians. Neighbour-
hood.

The islands round Sicily may now be mentioned in order to complete the account of the Neapolitan states. Oppidolo, the chief town in *Pentallaria*, an island on the south-east, contains three thousand five hundred inhabitants. The burgh of Santa Maria, a place defended by a fortress, contains the greater part of the population in *Ustica*, which lies to the north of the Gulf of Palermo. *Alicudi* or *Alicuri*, an island somewhat smaller than the last, does

BOOK not contain more than two hundred and fifty individuals.
CXXXIV. Salina, which has been already mentioned, is peopled by four thousand inhabitants. The population of Lipari amounts to eighteen thousand; the town of the same name is fortified, and the island produces excellent muscadine wine. Two hundred inhabitants reside in Panaria, the ancient *Didyme*. Stromboli is the ancient *Strongyle*, its fruitful and volcanic soil did not contain more than two hundred inhabitants about twenty-five years ago, but at present, more than two thousand are collected in a single town. The other islands dependent on Sicily, are not inhabited.

Character
of the inha-
bitants.
Manners.

The climate of Sicily exerts its influence, not only on the physical, but moral character of its inhabitants. The Sicilians are gay, lively and intellectual; of ardent imaginations and impetuous passions; the same people are generous, hospitable and faithful observers of their word. But neither are their good qualities improved, nor their bad passions subdued by education. A man commits murder, not from covetousness, but from vengeance. To avenge oneself is by all considered a right, by many a duty. The lower orders in Sicily do not submit to injuries so tamely as the people of Naples, the higher classes never venture to strike their inferiors; a blow, says M. Simond, might be repaid with a stab. Although they pass their time in indolence, their mental activity puts them in possession of many resources, indeed if they were well educated, they might perhaps be superior to the people of any other country. But they are kept in ignorance; influential men consider knowledge a fatal or dangerous present; it is supposed to make the people discontented, not familiar with the moral truths, that are so closely connected with those of religion.

Elementary education, by diffusing the use of writing, might introduce a love of order and economy among the lower ranks, enable them to profit by the perusal of the books within their reach, dispose them to consider their engagements to the state, and their other duties, more obli-

gatory, and render the husbandman and the artisan better able to inform themselves in their respective departments of industry. What danger can result from such changes in the manners and habits of the people? The bulwarks that defend the palace against popular tumults, are not impregnable; a well informed person capable of respecting the laws, may be more easily kept within the limits of a reasonable obedience, than another who knows only the sovereignty of force, the submission that results from fear.

We have attempted to describe the fondness of the people for religious festivals. The Sicilians require a worship that addresses itself to the senses, they must have flowers, perfumes, noisy music and images; incapable of receiving Christianity in its native purity, they introduced the machinery of polytheism into the religion of Jesus. The national vanity, which is common to the Sicilians with their ancestors, makes them suppose themselves superior to other people, and the same sentiment produces some degree of jealousy between the different towns. Athens and Lacedæmon claimed political supremacy, and Messina does not yield to Palermo the title of capital.

The Sicilians are exemplary for their sobriety, in that virtue, at least, they are not inferior to the ancient Spartans. Some customs of the Greeks are still preserved among the peasantry; thus, the shepherds choose a judge to hear their songs, and to award the prize to him who deserves it. The country women retain the Greek costume, — the long veil and the wide cincture.

Conversazione are as general in Sicily as in Italy; people meet in each others houses, or in public places to which they subscribe; in the latter, rooms are set apart for the purpose of conversation, and other apartments for those who consider gambling more attractive. But what appears very strange, a lady in confinement never fails to hold a *conversazione*, and, the day after delivery, all her friends repair to her chamber. The pains, by which, women purchase the pleasure of being mothers, are not felt in Sicily, an advantage that nature has bestowed on warm climates.

BOOK CXXXVI. Sicily has given birth to distinguished writers; and their works form frequently a subject for criticism or conversation to the present Sicilians. Poetry is the language of love and gallantry, there is not a tender swain that does not express the cruelty of his mistress in rhyme. Amorous intrigues are the pastimes of all the ladies; they never walk on the streets, they are only seen in the theatre, at mass, or in their houses. They adopt, and often improve the French fashions, and they are perhaps as adroit as the Parisian ladies in heightening the effect of fine features and arch eyes. The women of Messina are pleasant and agreeable in their manners, at Palermo they are handsome, at Syracuse they are distinguished by the freshness of their complexion, at Trapani, one may discover the regularity of the Greek profile. In Naples the men are handsomer than the women, in Sicily the women are better looking than the men.

Corruption. The principal sources of public corruption are an inextricable labyrinth of laws, a host of advocates and attorneys, encouraging, more than anywhere else, the mania for lawsuits. Justice is venal, and the judges do not blush to acknowledge it; the agents of government are the greatest smugglers, monks educate youth, and govern families, while their own conduct is not more exemplary than that of their predecessors in the sixteenth century.

Police. Sicily was formerly as much infested with robbers as the Neapolitan territory is at present, and some parts in the island were emphatically styled dens of thieves. Such, however, is no longer the case, for strangers may travel without danger, from one end of the country to the other. Resolute *Capitanos*, appointed in each district, are chosen from the most influential proprietors. Each *Capitano* has a guard of fourteen horsemen, well mounted, well armed, and well paid, and it is the duty of their chief to enforce the law in his district, preserve the peace, and ensure the safety of the inhabitants, for which he is made responsible. The horsemen were originally selected from the most in-

trepid banditti, and they have performed their duty so well that travelling is as safe in Sicily as in England.

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Strangers have some difficulty in understanding the manner of computing time in Sicily and in every part of Italy, except Turin, Parma and Florence. The first hour of the twenty-four, or the Ave Maria, begins half an hour after sunset; therefore, at the *equinox*, what is noon in the rest of Europe, is thirty minutes after seventeen in Italy, and it is one o'clock on the same day and in the same country at half past seven in the evening. One inconvenience attending the Italian method, is that the clocks must be regulated every day at noon, and advanced or retarded according as the days are becoming longer or shorter. The watches of the Italians are made in foreign countries, and the dials do not correspond with their mode of counting the hours, which, they maintain, has many advantages over the ordinary method.

Manner of
counting the
hours.

Italy, once the country of flourishing colonies, the centre of the most formidable empire in ancient times, the theatre of the most powerful republics during the middle ages, has remained without influence and without glory, during the political changes to which Europe has in modern times been exposed. Divided into kingdoms and principalities of the second and third order, it is without any central point, every part is consequently vulnerable. During fourteen centuries, to conquer Italy was the ambition of princes beyond the Alps, and late events have too clearly proved that its different states may easily become the prey of an ambitious monarch. One or two victories enabled Napoleon to make himself master of the country. Had he secured its independence by giving it a chief, in place of dividing it into prefectures, governed under his influence by princes of his family, France and Italy might have resisted the coalition of Europe. Napoleon acknowledged his error, when it could not be repaired; what that emperor did not attempt, time, and the interests of Europe, may perhaps accomplish. The influence of manners, religion and language, tends to

Destinies of
Italy.

BOOK unite all the people in Italy ; the intrigues of some princes,
CXXXVI. and the ambition of different powers, have hitherto prevented the union. The successive conquests of the greatest empire in Europe, may at no distant period occasion reasonable alarm for the safety of western nations ; in the event of any calamity, it might be well to secure the independence of Italy. Additional resources might be obtained in the alliance of a country possessing on a surface of 97,200 square miles, a population of 16,560,000 individuals. But if commerce and industry were encouraged, Italy might easily contain twenty-four millions, so great is the fertility of the soil, so great are the advantages of its climate. The Italian nation is defended, by the Alps on the north, by the Apenines in the centre, and in other directions by the sea ; it might add to the natural strength of its position by fortresses, strongholds and arsenals,—it might maintain an imposing army, enlarge its ports, create a navy, avail itself of its islands to acquire a maritime superiority, and be raised to an equality with the greatest nations.

One of the present thrones in Italy may probably govern the whole country ; but if the different states be excited to revolt by local interests or unforeseen causes, Italy may become a federative republic, Milan, Venice, Florence, Rome, Naples, Cagliari and Palermo might then be the six principal towns in the New United States,—participating perhaps, at the extremity of the continent, in the wealth and prosperity that distinguish the American federation.

STATISTICAL TABLES

OF ITALY.

*Lombard Venetian Kingdom divided into two governments and seventeen delegations, including forty-one Towns, a hundred and seventy-six Burghs and five thousand four hundred and eighty-one Villages.**

GOVERNMENT OF MILAN:

| Capitals. | Popula-
tion of the
chief
towns. | Surface in
German
square
miles. | Popula-
tion of the
Delega-
tions. | Popula-
tion for
every
German
square
mile. |
|--------------|---|--|---|---|
| 1. Sondrio . | 3,374 | 62,05 | 83,451 | 1,346 |
| 2. Como . | 7,669 | 60,61 | 335,060 | 5,761 |
| 3. Milan . | 124,647 | 47,90 | 463,477 | 9,861 |
| 4. Pavia . | 21,351 | 24,40 | 146,368 | 6,098 |
| 5. Lodi . | 14,882 | 34,10 | 197,532 | 5,809 |
| 6. Bergamo . | 29,469 | 66,10 | 315,186 | 4,775 |
| 7. Brescia . | 32,911 | 57,80 | 323,738 | 5,679 |
| 8. Cremona . | 26,876 | 22,60 | 175,815 | 7,991 |
| 9. Mantua . | 23,340 | 27,30 | 239,436 | 8,868 |

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GOVERNMENT OF VENICE.

| | | | | |
|---|---------|----------|-----------|-------|
| 10. Verona . | 60,000 | 68,40 | 277,849 | 4,086 |
| 11. Rovigo ^b . | 7,000 | 20,72 | 135,625 | 6,781 |
| 12. Padua . | 47,000 | 39,80 | 290,514 | 7,474 |
| 13. Vicenza . | 30,000 | 41,20 | 297,547 | 7,257 |
| 14. Belluno . | 8,000 | 61,90 | 122,840 | 2,013 |
| 15. Treviso . | 15,000 | 35,60 | 232,732 | 6,649 |
| 16. Venice . | 109,927 | 51,26 | 249,157 | 4,885 |
| 17. Udina ^c . | 18,000 | 130,20 | 350,974 | 2,699 |
| Total superficies in German square miles, and average population for every German square mile | | 851,94 | 4,237,301 | 4,979 |
| Surface in square geographical leagues, and average population for each league | | 2,368,39 | | 1,789 |

* The above table indicates the population according to the census of 1825, contained in the *Alphabetisch-topographisches, Postreise-Handbuch*, published by M. Max. Fried. Thielen, Vienna 1827.

^b Metropolis of Polesino, an ancient province, now a delegation.

^c Metropolis of Friuli.

BOOK
CXXXVI.*Population according to the origin of the Inhabitants.*

| | |
|-----------|-----------------|
| Italians | 4,163,700 |
| Germans | 66,500 |
| Jews | 5,600 |
| Greeks | 700 |
| Armenians | 500 |
| | <hr/> 4,237,000 |

Statistics of the Press, 1824.^d

| | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|
| Volumes printed—Number of copies | 1,040,500 |
| Engravings and music—Number of copies | 143,600 |

Periodical Works.

| | |
|------------------------------------|-------|
| The Milan Gazette—Number of copies | 1,900 |
| Ladies' Courier | 700 |
| Royal Almanack | 690 |
| Law Bulletin | 1750 |

Besides these works, each delegation has its separate journal.

Scientific and Literary Journals.

| | |
|------------|----------|
| At Milan | 8 |
| At Padua | 1 |
| At Treviso | 1 |
| At Pavia | 1 |
| | <hr/> 11 |

Libraries.

| | |
|---|-----------------|
| At Belluno, the advocates' library contains | 45,000 volumes. |
| At Bergamo, the largest contains | 30,000 |
| At Brescia Id. | 60,000 |
| At Mantua Id. | 50,000 |
| At Milan, the Ambrosian library | 90,000 |
| Id. the Brero library | 140,000 |
| At Padua, the university library | 70,000 |
| Id. the Benedictine library | 52,000 |
| At Pavia, the university library | 33,000 |
| At Venice, library of St. Mark | 150,000 |
| Id. the Narri library | 40,000 |
| At Vicenza | 20,000 |

^d Taken from the *Biblioteca Italiana*, February 1825, January and February, 1826.

*Universities, Colleges, &c. in 1822.*BOOK
CXXXVI.

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| Government of Milan | 11 |
| Id. Venice | 7 |
| University of Padua founded in 1221, attended in 1822 by 300 students. | |
| University of Pavia Id. 1361, | 750 |
| Number of children who attend the schools | 132,000 ^e |
| In 1815, the children attending the schools in the delegations of Brescia and Bergamo, were as one in | 14 |
| In the delegation of Venice, in the year 1823, they were as one in | 27 |
| Idem, 1826, one in | 23 ^f |

KINGDOM OF PIEMONTE AND SARDINIA.

DIVIDED INTO EIGHT INTENDENCIES, INTO FORTY CONTINENTAL AND TEN INSULAR PROVINCES, CONTAINING IN ALL NINETY-FOUR TOWNS, TWO HUNDRED AND SIXTY-NINE BURGHS, AND THREE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED AND FIFTY-SIX VILLAGES AND HAMLETS.

Division of Savoy.^g

| Provinces. | Population. | Capitals. | Population. |
|--------------|-------------|--------------------|-------------|
| Savoy Proper | 119,910 | Chambery† | 12,000 |
| Upper Savoy | 35,140 | L'Hopital | 1,500 |
| Carouge | 37,960 | Saint-Julien | 1,000 |
| Chablais | 45,030 | Thonon | 3,000 |
| Faucigny | 68,100 | Bonneville | 1,200 |
| Genevois | 71,850 | Annecy | 5,500 |
| Maurienne | 49,770 | Saint Jean de Maur | 2,500 |
| Tarentaise | 39,320 | Montiers | 2,500 |

Division of Turin.

| | | | |
|----------|---------|-----------|---------|
| Turin | 315,480 | Turin†† | 114,000 |
| Biella | 91,700 | Biella† | 7,700 |
| Ivrea | 136,200 | Ivrea† | 7,000 |
| Pignerol | 106,990 | Pignerol† | 4,000 |
| Susa | 65,470 | Susa† | 2,000 |

^e According to Hassel.

^f According to M. Balbi. See his work entitled, *The World compared with the British Empire*.

^g The population of the provinces is taken from the census of 1826. The signs † and †† indicate bishoprics and archbishoprics.

BOOK
CXXXVI.*Division of Coni.*

| | | | |
|-----------------|---------|------------------|--------|
| Coni | 143,780 | Coni† | 16,500 |
| Alba | 99,380 | Alba† | 7,000 |
| Mondovi | 118,370 | Mondovi† | 17,000 |
| Saluzzo | 127,600 | Saluzzo† | 10,000 |

Division of Alessandria.

| | | | |
|---------------------|---------|----------------------|--------|
| Alessandria | 90,530 | Alessandria† | 30,000 |
| Acqui | 76,940 | Acqui† | 6,500 |
| Asti | 107,670 | Asti† | 21,000 |
| Casal | 102,820 | Casal† | 16,000 |
| Tortona | 47,580 | Tortona† | 8,000 |
| Volghera | 84,770 | Volghera† | 10,000 |

Division of Novara.

| | | | |
|-------------------|---------|-----------------------|--------|
| Novara | 115,780 | Novara† | 13,000 |
| Lumelline | 101,330 | Vigevano | 15,000 |
| Ossola | 30,420 | Domo d'Ossola | 1,500 |
| Pallanza | 60,040 | Pallanza | 1,500 |
| Val-Sezia | 31,320 | Varallo | 3,300 |
| Vercelli | 101,130 | Vercelli†† | 16,000 |

Division of Aosta.

| | | | |
|---------------|--------|----------------|-------|
| Aosta | 64,640 | Aosta† | 5,500 |
|---------------|--------|----------------|-------|

Division of Nice.

| | | | |
|------------------|--------|---------------------|--------|
| Nice | 85,220 | Nice† | 15,000 |
| Oneglia | 51,360 | Oneglia | 4,000 |
| San Remo | 36,650 | Vintimille† | 5,500 |

Division of Genoa.

| | | | |
|------------------|---------|--------------------|--------|
| Genoa | 208,290 | Genoa†† | 60,000 |
| Albenga | 50,860 | Albenga† | 4,000 |
| Bobbio | 31,490 | Bobbio† | 3,500 |
| Chiavari | 91,380 | Chiavari | 8,000 |
| Levanto | 64,450 | { Spezzia | 4,000 |
| | | { Sarsana† | 3,000 |
| Novi | 56,540 | Novi | 8,000 |
| Savona | 36,340 | Savona | 10,000 |

Total 3,399,600 on a surface of 2,635 square leagues,
giving on average 1260 for every square league.

*Population of Turin at the end of 1825.^a*BOOK.
CXXXVI.

| | Men. | Women. | Total. |
|---|--------|--------|----------------------|
| Different classes | 39,514 | 43,094 | 82,608 |
| Working classes | 7,744 | 4,405 | 12,149 |
| Clergymen | 663 | — | 663 |
| Servants | 2659 | 4,874 | 7,533 |
| Jews | 777 | 776 | 1,553 |
| Individuals holding offices in the
different congregations | 275 | — | 275 |
| Individuals in the monasteries | 7 | 215 | 222 |
| Id. in religious houses | 15 | 848 | 863 |
| Id. in the seminaries, colleges
and military academy | 995 | — | 995 |
| Individuals in the hospitals | 1098 | 1556 | 2654 |
| | 53,747 | 55,768 | 109,515 ^d |

ISLAND OF SARDINIA.

Population of the provinces in 1821.

| | |
|------------|---------|
| 1 Cagliari | 95,780 |
| 2 Busachi | 63,270 |
| 3 Iglesias | 36,680 |
| 4 Isili | 44,170 |
| 5 Lanusei | 24,540 |
| 6 Nuoro | 47,900 |
| 7 Sassari | 54,710 |
| 8 Alghero | 26,660 |
| 9 Cuglieri | 30,110 |
| 10 Ozieri | 38,130 |
| | 461,950 |

Population of the Dioceses in 1823.^b

| Names
of the
Dioceses. | Towns. | Villages
or
Burghs. | Population. | Number
of
Parishes. | Population
of the
Dioceses. |
|------------------------------|------------|---------------------------|-------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Cagliari | Cagliari†† | | 27,356 | 79 | 109,888 |
| | Quarto | | 5,320 | | |
| | Sanluri | | 3,301 | | |
| | Sinnai | | 2,643 | | |
| | Gergei | | 2,055 | | |

^a See *Annal. Univers. di Statistica*, February, 1826.^b The population of 1824 amounted to 107,388
Increase at the end of 1825 2,127

109,515

The increase from the end of 1825 to the end of 1826 was more than double that of the preceding year.

^c The above table has been derived from details furnished by M. Cibrario, see *Bulletin des sciences, section de Géographie*, tom. ii.

| BOOK
CXXXVI. | Names
of the
Dioceses. | Towns. | Villages
or
Burghs. | Population. | Number
of
Parishes. | Population
of the
Dioceses. |
|-----------------|------------------------------|-------------|---|---|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| | Ogliastra | | Villaputzu
Seni
Lanusei† | 2,150
1,814
1,379 | 28 | 25,982 |
| | Sassari | Sassari† | Sorso
Bonorvo
Ittiri
Ossilo
Ploaghe | 19,368
3,285
4,253
4,000
4,988
3,000 | 32 | 77,467 |
| | Iglesias | Iglesias† | Carloforte | 4,591
2,486 | 23 | 22,803 |
| | Gastella and
Nuoro | | Nuoro†
Dorgali
Fonni
Olienna | 3,349
3,049
3,000
2,500 | 25 | 33,570 |
| | Alghero | Alghero† | Villanova
Bolotona | 6,924
3,176
2,180 | 26 | 32,965 |
| | Bosa | Bosa† | Santo Lussurgiu
Cuglieri | 5,553
4,022
3,405 | 20 | 23,017 |
| | Bisarcio | | Ozieri†
Pattada
Budduso | 7,766
3,019
2,100 | 24 | 29,760 |
| | Ales | | Guspini
Villacidro†
Gonnos Fanadigo | 3,307
5,571
3,125 | 41 | 42,093 |
| | Oristano | Oristano†† | Cabras
Tonnara
Isili | 5,356
2,600
2,136
2,062 | 73 | 65,894 |
| | Ampurias and
Civita | Castlesardo | Tempio†
Nulvi
Sedini
La Maddalena | 1,964
7,057
3,009
1,343
1,758 | 21 | 26,648 |
| Total | | | | | 392 | 490,087 ¹ |

Population of the Sardinian States.

| | According to
their origin. | | According to
their religion. |
|------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Peimontese | 3,010,000 | Catholics | 3,864,000 |
| Savoyards | 386,000 | Vaudois | 22,000 |
| Sardinians | 490,000 | Jews | 3,700 |
| Jews | 3,700 | | |
| 3,889,700 | | 3,889,700 ⁺ | |

¹The above population, on a surface of 1,100 square leagues, together with the adjacent islands, gives the small proportion of 445 individuals for every square league.

*Population of Sardinia according to their Classes.^m*BOOK
CXXXVI.

| Families. | Individuals. |
|---------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1,600 Noble families | 6,200 |
| 16,500 Husbandmen | 85,000 |
| 16,300 Citizens | 65,200 |
| 66,161 Workmen and Peasants | 330,805 ⁿ |
| Ecclesiastics | 1,757 |
| Monks | 1,125 |
| | <hr/> 490,087 |

Religious Societies and Convents in the Island of Sardinia.

| Occupations. | Orders. | Religious Societies
and Convents. | Individuals. |
|------------------------------|---|--------------------------------------|--------------|
| Teachers | Jesuits | 2 | 11 |
| Id. | Teachers of Religious Schools }
St. John | 6 | 74 |
| Superintendents of Hospitals | Different Orders | 30 | 317 |
| Proprietors | Id. | 47 | 695 |
| Mendicants | | <hr/> 90 | <hr/> 1,125 |

Number of Murders in the Island of Sardinia.

The proportion is as one to every 490 inhabitants.

Total number about 1,000^o*Table of Cattle existing in the Island of Sardinia in 1824.*

| | In a Domestic State. | On the Mountains. |
|------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| Oxen | 91,800 | 28,500 |
| Cows | 17,900 | 106,000 |
| Pigs | 30,000 | 156,000 |
| Horses | 29,000 | 17,800 |
| Goats | | 314,800 |
| Ewes | | 669,600 |
| Rams | | 61,400 |
| | | <hr/> 1,523,100 |

^m According to La Marmara. ⁿ According to an approximation.^o See Storia di Sardegna, 1825.

BOOK
CXXXVI.*Places of Education in the Sardinian States.*

| Towns. | Universities. | Number of Students. | Libraries. | Number of Volumes. |
|-----------------|---------------------------|---------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Turin | 1 ^p | 1,200 | University | 110,000 |
| Genoa | 1 ^q | 420 | { S. Carlo . . . | 30,000 |
| | | | { Beria . . . | 20,000 |
| | | | { Franzoniana | 30,000 |
| Cagliari | 1 ^r | 350 | University | 70,000 |
| Sassari | 1 ^s | 120 | Id. | 15,000 |
| Different Towns | { Gymnasias
Seminaries | 41
37 | | |

BUDGET OF THE SARDINIAN STATES IN 1825 AND 1826.

Island of Sardinia.

| | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|--------------------------|
| Cense | . | . | . | L.200 |
| Domains of the Crown | . | . | . | 3,504 |
| Direct taxes | . | ✓ | . | 38,194 |
| Indirect taxes | . | . | . | 71,830 |
| Contingencies | . | . | . | 857 |
| | | | | <hr/> L.114,585 |
| Revenues of the continental provinces | . | . | . | 259,400 |
| | | | | <hr/> L.373,985 |
| Total | . | . | . | L.373,985 |
| Public debt | . | . | . | L.4,200,000 ^t |

ARMY.

Land Forces.

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|--------|
| In Sardinia, Infantry | . | . | . | . | 10,000 |
| Id. Cavalry | . | . | . | . | 6,000 |

NAVY.

| | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ships of war | . | . | . | . | . |
| Frigates | . | . | . | . | . |

^p Founded in 1406.^q Founded in 1803.^r Founded in 1704.^s Founded in 1764.

^t The Sardinian debt amounted in 1816 to L.3,600,000. M. Adrian Balbi, (*Balance politique du Globe*) makes it equal in 1826, to L.4,200,000, he admits that his calculation may be inaccurate, but it is certain that the public debt in 1825, was considerably greater than in 1816.

*Continental Provinces.*BOOK
CXXXVI.

| | |
|----------------------|--------|
| Infantry and Cavalry | 10,000 |
| Second rate vessels | 7 |

Principality of Monaco.

| | |
|-------------|----------|
| Population. | Revenue. |
| 6,500 | L.16,700 |

DUTCHY OF PARMA.

Containing six Towns, thirty-one Burghs, and eight hundred and fifteen Villages or Hamlets.

| Surface in geographical square leagues. u | Population in 1826. | Average Population to every square league. |
|--|---------------------|--|
| 288 | 440,000 | 1,180 |
| The population in 1823 amounted to 437,000 | | |
| Increase | 2,600 | |

Population of the Towns.

| | |
|--------------------|--------|
| 1 Parma | 30,000 |
| 2 Placentia | 28,000 |
| 3 Guastalla | 5,000 |
| 4 Borgo-san-Domino | 5,000 |
| 5 Fiorenzuola | 3,000 |
| 6 Nibbiano | 2,300 |

Principal places of Education.

| Towns. | Universities. | Number of Students. | Libraries. | Number of Volumes. |
|------------|----------------|---------------------|------------|--------------------|
| Parma, | 1 ^x | 250 | 1 | 110,000 |
| Placentia, | | | 1 | 20,000 |
| Revenue. | | Public Debt. | | Army. |
| £191,667 | | £187,500 | | 1,320 men. |

DUTCHY OF MODENA.

CONTAINING EIGHT TOWNS, SIXTY BURGHES AND FOUR HUNDRED
- VILLAGES OR HAMLETS.

| Surface in geographical square leagues. | Population in 1826. | Proportion of the population to the square league. |
|---|---------------------|--|
| 260 | 350,000 | 1,346 |

^u Twenty geographical leagues are equal to a degree, consequently a geographical square league is equal to nine geographical square miles.

^x Founded in 1606.

BOOK
CXXXVI.*Population of the Towns.*

| | |
|----------------------------|--------|
| Modena | 27,000 |
| Mirandola | 6,000 |
| Reggio | 18,000 |
| Castel Nuovo di Garfaguana | 3,000 |

Principal places of Education.

| Towns. | Universities. | Number of Students. | Libraries. | Number of Volumes. |
|----------|---------------|---------------------|------------|--------------------|
| Modena | 1 | 200 | 1 | 60,000 |
| Reggio | | | 1 | 30,000 |
| Revenue. | | Public Debt. | | Army. |
| £150,000 | | £50,000 | | 1680 men. |

DUTCHY OF MASSA.

INCLUDING TWO TOWNS, THREE BURGHS, AND THIRTY-SEVEN VILLAGES.

| Surface in geographical leagues. | Population in 1826. | Ratio of the population to the square league. |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| 12 | 29,000 | 2,416 |

Population of the Towns.

| | | | | | |
|----------|---|---|---------|---|----------|
| Massa | . | . | . | . | 7000 |
| Carrara | . | . | . | . | 6000 |
| Revenue. | | | Debt. | | Army. |
| £21,000 | . | . | £12,500 | . | 100 men. |

DUTCHY OF LUCCA.

CONTAINING TWO TOWNS, TWENTY BURGHS, AND TWO HUNDRED AND SEVENTY VILLAGES.

| Surface in geographical leagues. | Population in 1826. | Ratio of the population to the square league. |
|----------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| 54 | 143,000 | 2,648 |

Population of the Towns.

| | |
|-----------|--------|
| Lucca | 22,000 |
| Viareggio | 2,000 |

*Principal places of Instruction.*BOOK
CXXXVI.

| Towns. | Universities. | Number of Students. |
|----------|---------------|---------------------|
| Lucca | 1 y | 120 |
| Revenue. | Debt. | Army. |
| £82,000 | £35,000 | 800 men. |

GREAT DUTCHY OF TUSCANY.

INCLUDING THIRTY-SIX TOWNS, A HUNDRED AND THIRTY-FIVE
BURGHS, AND SIX THOUSAND AND SEVENTEEN VILLAGES.

| Surface in geographical
square leagues. | Population in
1826. | Ratio of the population
to the square league. |
|--|------------------------|--|
| 1,098 | 1,275,000 | 1,161 |

Population of the principal Towns.

| | |
|------------|--------|
| Florence | 80,000 |
| Prato | 10,000 |
| Pistoia | 9,000 |
| Arezzo | 7,000 |
| Cortona | 5,000 |
| Pisa | 20,000 |
| Leghorn | 66,000 |
| Piombino | 1,500 |
| Pontremoli | 3,000 |
| Sienna | 18,000 |
| Grossetto | 2,000 |
| Vollera | 4,000 |

Provinces.

| | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------|
| <i>Compartimento</i> of Florence | 596,250 |
| Id. of Pisa | 295,640 |
| Id. of Sienna | 128,080 |
| Id. of Arezzo | 201,290 |
| Id. of Grosseto | 53,730 |
| | <hr/> 1,275,000 |

Principal places of Education.

| Towns. | Universities. | Number of
Students. | Libraries. | Number of
Volumes. |
|----------|---------------|------------------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Florence | 1 z | 300 | Ducal | 80,000 |
| .. | .. | .. | Laurenziana | 20,000 |

y Founded in 1802.

z Founded in 1443.

| BOOK
CXXXVI. | Towns. | Universities. | Number
of Students. | Libraries. | Number
of Vols. |
|-----------------|----------|----------------|------------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| | Florence | .. | .. | Maglia Becchiana | 130,000 ^b |
| | " | .. | .. | Marucelliana | 50,000 |
| | " | .. | .. | Ricordiana | 20,000 |
| | Pisa | 1 | 660 | University | 40,000 |
| | Sienna | 1 ^d | 280 | University | 25,000 |

Elementary Schools.

| Towns. | Laneastrian
Schools. | Schools in the neighbour-
hood of Florence. |
|----------|-------------------------|--|
| Florence | 4 | 8 |
| Revenue. | Debt. | Army. |
| £708,500 | | 4,000 men. |

REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO.

CONTAINING ONE TOWN AND FOUR VILLAGES.

| Surface in geographical
leagues. | Population
in 1826. | Ratio of the population
to the surface. |
|-------------------------------------|------------------------|--|
| 3 | 7,000 | 2,233 |
| Revenue.
£2920 | | Military Force.
40 men. |

STATES OF THE CHURCH.

CONTAINING NINETY TOWNS, TWO HUNDRED AND SIX BURGHS,
AND THREE THOUSAND THREE HUNDRED AND EIGHTY-SEVEN
VILLAGES.

| Surface in geographical
square leagues. | Population
in 1826. | Ratio of the population
to the surface. | Number of
Jews. |
|--|------------------------|--|--------------------|
| 2,257 | 2,590,000 | 1,147 | 15,000 |

New Division into thirteen Delegations.

| Names of the
delegations. | Population of
the towns. | Population of
the delegation. |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 Bologna | 65,000 | 295,000 |
| 2 Ferrara | 24,000 | 250,000 |
| 3 Ravenna | 24,000 | 150,000 |
| 4 Forli | 16,000 | 170,000 |

^b It contains 11,000 manuscripts.^c Founded in 1339.^d Founded in 1330.

^e The states of the church were divided into eighteen provinces in 1824; but the divisions were afterwards changed; we are indebted to M. Balbi for the above table.

| | Names of
the delegations. | Population of
the towns. | Population of
the delegations. | BOOK
CXXXVI. |
|----|------------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------|
| 5 | { Pesaro
and
Urbino | 14,000 }
11,000 } | 200,000 | |
| 6 | { Macerata
and
Camerino | 12,000 }
7,000 } | 230,000 | |
| 7 | { Fermo
and
Ascoli | 7,000 }
12,000 } | 160,000 | |
| 8 | { Spoleto
and
Rieti | 7,000 }
7,000 } | 180,000 | |
| 9 | { Viterbo
and
Civita Vecchia | 13,000 }
7,000 } | 415,000 | |
| 10 | Ancona | 30,000 | 160,000 | |
| 11 | Perugia | 30,000 | 190,000 | |
| 12 | { Frosinone
and
Ponte Corvo | 6,000 }
6,000 } | 170,000 | |
| 13 | Benevento | 14,000 | 20,000 | |
| | | | <hr/> 2,590,000 | |

* The ninth delegation comprehends the town and territory of Rome.

BOOK Principal places of Education, Religious Houses and Hospitals.
CXXXVI.

| Towns. | Universi-
ties. | No. of
Students. | Semina-
ries. | Libraries. | No. of
Volumes. | Convents. | Different
Hospitals. |
|-----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-------------------------|
| Ancona . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 16 | 2 |
| Albanno . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 5 | 0 |
| Ascoli . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 8 | 1 |
| Benevento . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | | 14 | 4 |
| Bologna . . | 1 ^s | 550 | 0 | { University
Magnani | 200,000
30,000 | 6 | 4 |
| Camerino . . | 1 ^h | 200 | 0 | 1 | | 19 | 0 |
| Civita-Vecchia . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 6 | 1 |
| Civita-Castellana . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 3 | 0 |
| Fermo . . | 1 ⁱ | 200 | 0 | 1 | 15,000 | 3 | 0 |
| Ferrara . . | 1 ^k | 300 | 1 | 1 | 80,000 | 22 | 1 |
| Forli . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 10 | 0 |
| Frosinone . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 3 | 0 |
| Frascati . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 4 | 0 |
| Fondi . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | | 4 | 1 |
| Macerata . . | 1 ^m | 200 | 1 | 1 | 20,000 | 3 | 0 |
| Perugia . . | 1 ⁿ | 200 | 0 | 1 | 30,000 | 20 | 1 |
| Pesaro . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 10 | 1 |
| Ponte Corvo . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 3 | 0 |
| Ravenna . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 30,000 | 4 | 1 |
| Rieti . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 3 | 0 |
| Rimini . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 25,000 | 7 | 0 |
| Spolletto . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 6 | 1 |
| Tivoli . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | | 14 | 1 |
| Urbino . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10,000 | 10 | 1 |
| Viterbo . . | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | | 10 | 1 |
| Rome . . | 1 ^o | 600 | 4 | Albani | 40,000 | 300 | 9 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Angelica | 100,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Barbarini | 60,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Corsini | 40,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Ghigi | 25,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Of Minerva | 80,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Of Science | 35,000 | 0 | 0 |
| _____ . . | 0 | 0 | 0 | Of the Vatican | 70,000 | 0 | 0 |

^s Founded in 1119.

ⁿ Founded in 1824.

ⁱ Founded in 1824.

^k Founded by Leo the Twelfth.

^l The MSS. of Orlando and Jerusalem delivered, in the handwriting of Ariosto and Tasso, are preserved in the library.

^m Founded by Leo the Twelfth in 1824.

ⁿ Founded in 1307.

^o Founded in 1248. We have not enumerated all the convents in the Roman states; there are few towns or villages without them.

Statistics of the Population in Rome from 1816 to 1825.

| | 1816. | 1817. | 1818. | 1819. | 1820. | 1821. | 1822. | 1823. | 1824. | 1825. |
|--|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Families | 32,587 | 31,705 | 32,572 | 33,510 | 34,601 | 34,650 | 34,585 | 34,357 | 33,774 | 33,271 |
| Cardinals | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 19 |
| Bishops | 32 | 31 | 28 | 26 | 28 | 29 | 27 | 27 | 32 | 32 |
| Priests | 1,303 | 1,434 | 1,429 | 1,399 | 1,455 | 1,397 | 1,450 | 1,395 | 1,570 | 1,456 |
| Monks | 1,286 | 1,370 | 1,450 | 1,487 | 1,519 | 1,532 | 1,532 | 1,565 | 1,613 | 1,662 |
| Nuns | 1,172 | 1,303 | 1,325 | 1,348 | 1,382 | 1,468 | 1,464 | 1,370 | 1,318 | 1,502 |
| Populæ in the seminaries | 241 | 423 | 359 | 252 | 424 | 332 | 409 | 460 | 469 | 468 |
| Poor in the Hospitals | 2,757 | 2,992 | 3,044 | 2,389 | 2,826 | 1,963 | 1,942 | 1,438 | 1,390 | 2,002 |
| Prisoners | 778 | 996 | 1,667 | 1,728 | 1,033 | 968 | 1,112 | 1,218 | 1,080 | 1,020 |
| Heretics, Turks, Infidels, exclusively of Jews | 62 | 108 | 172 | 246 | 244 | 215 | 275 | 234 | 195 | 217 |
| Children at the age of Communion | 93,669 | 95,662 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 97,199 | 97,249 | ... |
| Id. before the age of Communion | 35,301 | 36,241 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 39,070 | 40,696 | ... |
| Marriages | 1,303 | 1,031 | 1,183 | 1,440 | 1,395 | 1,265 | 1,157 | 1,269 | 1,369 | 1,158 |
| Baptisms | 4,256 | 3,836 | 3,944 | 4,299 | 4,215 | 4,756 | 4,309 | 4,365 | 4,628 | 4,243 |
| Deaths, Males | 2,750 | 3,997 | 4,145 | 3,741 | 2,785 | 3,128 | 3,320 | 3,129 | 2,997 | 2,460 |
| Deaths, Females | 2,191 | 2,440 | 2,723 | 2,741 | 2,053 | 2,288 | 2,937 | 2,351 | 2,252 | 1,986 |
| Total number of Deaths | 4,941 | 6,437 | 6,868 | 6,314 | 4,838 | 5,416 | 6,257 | 5,480 | 5,249 | 4,446 |
| Males | 67,226 | 69,544 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 72,355 | 72,373 | 73,397 |
| Females | 61,771 | 61,812 | ... | ... | ... | ... | ... | 63,914 | 66,237 | 65,333 |
| Total Population | 128,997 | 131,356 | 133,812 | 134,161 | 135,046 | 135,171 | 136,085 | 136,269 | 138,610 | 138,730 |

† The tables for the years 1816 and 1817, are taken from M. Simond's Travels in Italy.

| | | |
|---------|---|--------|
| BOOK | The mean number of marriages is about | 1.299 |
| CXXXVI. | Their ratio to the population is one to | 106.60 |
| | The mean number of children for every marriage is about | 3.30 |
| | The number of births is to the population as one to | 32.23 |
| | The number of deaths is to the population as one to | 24.76 |

| Revenue. | Debt. | Army. | Marine. |
|-------------|---------------|-------|---|
| L.1,250,000 | L.25,000,000† | 6000 | { 2 frigates.
8 vessels of smaller size. |

KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES.

INCLUDING SIX HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-SIX TOWNS, THREE HUNDRED AND NINETY-EIGHT BURGHS, AND TWO THOUSAND ONE HUNDRED AND FORTY-TWO VILLAGES AND HAMLETS.

| | Surface in geographical square miles. | Population in 1826. | Population according to the sexes. | Ratio of the population to the surface. |
|------------------------|---------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Continental provinces | 3,910 | 5,690,000 | { Men 2,774,646
Women 2,915,354 } | 1,455 |
| Sicily and the islands | 1,610 | 1,780,000 | | 1,074 |
| | <hr/> 5,520 | <hr/> 7,420,000 | | <hr/> 1,344 |

Division of the Kingdom of Naples into fifteen Provinces.

| Provinces. | Population. | Chief Towns. | Other Towns. | Population. |
|------------------|-------------|--------------|------------------------|-------------|
| Napoli | 819,000 | Naples | | 354,000 |
| | | | Castelamare | 15,000 |
| | | | Portici | 5,000 |
| | | | Pozzuoli | 5,000 |
| | | | Sorrento | 4,000 |
| | | | Torre del l'Annunciata | 5,000 |
| | | | Torre del Greco | 15,000 |
| Terra di Lavoro | 663,000 | Capua | | 3,000 |
| | | | Acerra | 6,000 |
| | | | Arpino | 9,000 |
| | | | Aversa | 13,000 |
| | | | Caserta | 4,000 |
| | | | Fondi | 5,000 |
| | | | Gaeta | 15,000 |
| | | | Nola | 9,000 |
| Principato-Citer | 503,000 | Salerno | | 11,000 |

† According to M. Balbi.

* According to Hassel.

| Provinces. | Population. | Chief Towns. | Other Towns. | Population. | BOOK |
|------------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------------------|-------------|---------|
| | | | Amalfi | 3,000 | CXXXVI. |
| | | | Nocera | 9,000 | |
| Principato Ulter | 405,000 | Avellino | | 13,000 | |
| | | | Ariano | 10,000 | |
| | | | Atripalda | 4,000 | |
| Abruzzo 1° Ult. | 178,000 | Teramo | | 9,000 | |
| | | | Civita di Penne | 8,000 | |
| Abruzzo 2° Ult. | 253,000 | Aquila | | 13,000 | |
| | | | Avezzano | 3,000 | |
| | | | Civita Ducale | 2,000 | |
| | | | Salmona | 4,000 | |
| Abruzzo Citer. | 285,000 | Chieti | | 13,000 | |
| | | | Lanciano | 12,000 | |
| | | | Vasto | 4,000 | |
| Capitanata | 289,000 | Foggia | | 21,000 | |
| | | | Bovina | 4,000 | |
| | | | Luzera | 8,000 | |
| | | | Manfredonia | 5,000 | |
| | | | Santo Severo | 4,000 | |
| Samnio or Molise | 234,000 | Campobasso | | 8,000 | |
| | | | Colle | 4,000 | |
| | | | Marcone | 5,000 | |
| | | | Sepino | 3,000 | |
| | | | Trivento | 4,000 | |
| Terra di Bari | 375,000 | Bari | | 15,000 | |
| | | | Altamura | 15,000 | |
| | | | Barletta | 17,000 | |
| | | | Molfetta | 11,000 | |
| | | | Monopoli | 10,000 | |
| | | | Trani | 12,000 | |
| | | | Terlizzi | 8,000 | |
| Terra di Otranto | 324,000 | Taranto | | 18,000 | |
| | | | Brindisi | 6,000 | |
| | | | Gallipoli | 8,000 | |
| | | | Lecce | 14,000 | |
| | | | Otranto | 3,000 | |
| Bisilicata | 429,000 | Potenza | | 8,000 | |
| | | | Lagonegra | 5,000 | |
| | | | Matera | 12,000 | |
| | | | Melfi | 7,000 | |
| Calabria Citer. | 387,000 | Cosenza | | 10,000 | |

BOOK Provinces.
CXXXVI. Brought over,

| | Population. | Chief Towns. | Other Towns. | Population. |
|--------------------|-------------|--------------|----------------|-------------|
| | | | Cassana | 6,000 |
| | | | Castro-Villari | 5,000 |
| | | | Paola | 8,000 |
| | | | Rossano | 6,000 |
| Calabria Ult. pr. | 225,000 | Reggio | | 16,000 |
| | | | Gerace | 5,000 |
| | | | Sciglio | 4,000 |
| Calabria Ult. Sec. | 821,000 | Catanzaro | | 11,000 |
| | | | Cotrone | 5,000 |
| | | | Monteleone | 15,000 |
| | | | Nicastro | 10,000 |
| | | | Pizzo | 5,000 |
| | | | Santa Severina | 6,000 |
| | | | Squillace | 2,000 |
| | | | Tropea | 4,000 |

Total 5,690,000

Division of the Island of Sicily into seven Intendencies.

| Intendencies. | Population. | Chief Towns. | Population. |
|---------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| Palermo | 409,000 | Palermo | 168,000 |
| Trapani | 147,000 | Trapani | 24,000 |
| Girgenti | 291,000 | Girgenti | 18,000 |
| Caltanissetta | 156,000 | Caltanissetta | 17,000 |
| Syracuse | 194,500 | Syracuse | 15,000 |
| Catania | 292,500 | Catania | 45,000 |
| Messina | 240,000 | Messina | 60,000 |

1,730,000

Population of the islands near Sicily in 1826.

| | |
|-----------------------|--------|
| | 260 |
| ~~Biancamano~~ | 20 |
| Felicudi | 820 |
| Lampedusa | 150 |
| Lipari | 18,200 |
| Panaria | 200 |
| Pantellena | 5,000 |
| Salina | 4,200 |
| Stromboli | 2,100 |
| Ustica | 700 |

31,650

* The inhabitants of the islands are included in the population of the Intendencies.

Principal places of Education in the Kingdom of the two Sicilies.

BOOK

CXXXVI.

| Collegiate Towns, | Number of Students. | Libraries. |
|----------------------|---------------------|------------|
| Naples ^t | 800 | 3 |
| Salerno | 300 | 1 |
| Palermo ^u | 600 | 1 |
| Catania ^x | 500 | 1 |

Population of the Kingdom of Naples during the year 1824.

| Provinces | Marriages. | Births. | Deaths. |
|---------------------------------|------------|---------|---------|
| Naples | 5,588 | 29,258 | 20,722 |
| Terra di Lavoro | 4,432 | 23,168 | 18,570 |
| Principato Citer. | 2,860 | 16,917 | 9,776 |
| Principato Ulter. | 2,587 | 13,572 | 9,558 |
| Abruzzo Ulter. 1 ^{re} | 1,507 | 10,038 | 6,012 |
| Abruzzo Ulter. 2 ^e | 1,533 | 9,667 | 6,578 |
| Abruzzo Citer. | 2,177 | 10,908 | 8,836 |
| Capitanata | 2,289 | 13,554 | 9,457 |
| Sannio or Molise | 2,630 | 14,187 | 12,636 |
| Terra di Bari | 3,144 | 18,936 | 11,320 |
| Terra d'Otranto | 2,824 | 15,763 | 10,414 |
| Basilicata | 3,816 | 20,978 | 13,166 |
| Calabria Citer. | 2,513 | 15,717 | 9,750 |
| Calabria Ulter. 1 ^{re} | 1,936 | 9,381 | 6,353 |
| Calabria Ulter. 2 ^e | 2,969 | 12,966 | 10,284 |
| | 42,805 | 235,010 | 163,432 |

Population of Naples in 1824.

| | Population. | Marriages. | Births. | Deaths. |
|---------|-------------|------------|---------|---------|
| Males | 165,015 | | 7,584 | 6,455 |
| Females | 184,175 | 2,970 | 7,407 | 6,121 |
| | 349,190 | | 14,991 | 12,576 |

Longevity in 1824.

| | From ninety to a hundred years of age. | Above a hundred years of age. | Total. |
|------------|--|-------------------------------|--------|
| Both sexes | 132 | 1 | 142 |
| | { Men | { 1 | |
| | { Females | { 9 | |

Suicides.

| | | | |
|---------|----|---------|---|
| In 1823 | 13 | In 1824 | 7 |
|---------|----|---------|---|

^t The university of Naples was founded in 1224.^u University founded in 1447.^x Founded in 1445.^y Giarn, del regno delle due Sicilie, July 1825.^z Exclusively of strangers.

BOOK
CXXXVI.*Population of Palermo in 1824.*

| Popu-
lation. | In the
Convents. | Mar-
riages. | Births. | Natural
Children. | Deaths
in pri-
vate
Houses. | Deaths
in the
Hospit-
als. | Deaths. |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 164,793 | { Males 1,510
Females 3,070 } | 978 | { Males 3,361
Females 3,197 } | 597 | 3,968 | 1,707 | { Males 2,694
Females 2,497 } |
| Total number of births and deaths | | | | 6,558 | Excess of births | | 1,881 |

Population of Palermo during the ten years from 1816 to 1825.^b

| Popu-
lation. | Marriages. | Births. | Natural
Children. | Deaths. |
|------------------|------------|---------|----------------------|---------|
| 167,503 | 10,882 | 65,760 | 6,123 | 49,893 |
| Excess of births | | | | 16,873 |

Longevity during the ten years from 1806 to 1815.

Out of 47,914 deaths,—Seventy-nine individuals were above ninety-seven years of age.

| | | | | |
|----------------------|---|---|---|----|
| From 97 years to 101 | . | . | . | 49 |
| From 102 to 105 | . | . | . | 22 |
| From 106 years | . | . | . | 3 |
| From 107 years | . | . | . | 2 |
| From 109 to 110 | . | . | . | 3 |
| | | | | — |
| | | | | 79 |

Budget of Sicily in 1823.

| Revenue. | Debt. |
|-------------|-------------|
| L.1,730,350 | L.2,264,555 |

Budget of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies in 1826.

| Revenue. | Debt. |
|-------------|--------------|
| L.3,500,000 | L.21,000,000 |

| ARMY. | ROYAL NAVY. | | | TRADING VESSELS. | | |
|-------------|-----------------------|-----------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|---|
| | Ships of
the Line. | Frigates. | Smaller
Vessels. | Polaquets. | Brigan-
tines. | Bomb Ketches,
Xebecs,
Feluccas, &c. |
| 30,000 men. | 2 | 5 | 18 | 20 | 220 | 3,480 |

^a Bulletino universale di scienze letter, arti et polit. 4th July 1825.

^b See Tavole sinottiche sulla popolazione di Palermo, by M. Calcagni, hon-
orary physician of the hospital of Palermo.



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